

deemed men, are thus admitted into male society: the men of the village (if it may be so called) squat down, and form a circle, as is usual upon most public occasions, the youth squats down without the circle, at some distance. The oldest man of the kraal then rises from the circle, and, having obtained the general consent for the admission of a new member, he goes to the youth, acquaints him with the determination of the men of the kraal, and concludes his harangue with some verses, which admonish him to behave like a man for the future. The youth being then daubed with soot and fat, and well sprinkled with urine, is congratulated by the company in general in a kind of chorus, which contains the following wishes: that good fortune may attend him, that he may live long, and thrive daily; that he may soon have a beard, and many children; till it is universally allowed he is a useful man to the nation. A feast concludes the ceremony; but the youth himself is not permitted to participate of any part thereof till all the rest are served.

Being thus admitted into male society, it is expected that he should behave ill to women in general, and to his mother in particular, in order to evince his contempt of every thing feminine. Indeed it is usual for a youth as soon as admitted, to go to his mother's hut, and cudgel her heartily, for which he is highly applauded by the whole kraal; and even the suffering parent herself admires him for his spirit, and protests that the blows do not give her so much pain, as the thoughts of having brought such a mettlesome son into the world afford her pleasure. The more ill treatment he gives his mother, the more esteem he obtains; and every time he strikes her she is in the highest raptures, and thanks Providence for having blessed her with such a spirited child. So egregiously will custom counteract the very dictates of nature, and impose upon the understanding of the ignorant.

A Hottentot never obtains an establishment, or, in other words, never is permitted to have a hut or cattle, previous to his marriage, but lives immediately under the direction of his father after eighteen, as he did with his mother before that age. As soon as he is married, his wife, as we hinted above, becomes his slave, does all the drudgery, and has all the care of domestic affairs upon her hands. The husband sinks into supineness, and gives himself totally up to idleness; if he ever stirs, it is now-and-then to go a fishing or hunting for a little amusement, or, if he knows a mechanical business, he may perhaps teach it to his eldest son. Upon no other occasion will he quit his beloved indolence, or shew the least alacrity, unless indeed he happens to receive an invitation to get drunk. Then joy sparkles in his eyes and elates his heart, and he thinks he never can make too much haste to render himself a greater brute than he naturally is.

It may now be proper to say something of those officers amongst them, which the Europeans generally denominate their priests. These persons are generally called *surri* or *master*, and are elected by every kraal: they are the men who perform the ceremony of making water at their weddings, and other festivals; the *surri* also is the person who extracts the left testicle from the young males at eight years of age; for all which he has no stated revenue, but a present now and then of a calf or a lamb, and makes one at their entertainments.

But every kraal also has its physician, as well as its priest, who are persons that have some skill in physic and surgery, and particularly in the virtues of salutary herbs: these also are chosen by a majority of voices, and make it their business to look after the people's health; but have no other reward for their pains, than voluntary presents. And such is the opinion of the Hottentots of these physicians, that, if they cannot effect a cure, they conclude they are certainly bewitched, as the doctor himself also never fails to give out: whereupon application is made to some pretended conjurer for relief; and if the patient happens to recover, it gives the cunning man, as we call him, a mighty reputation.

The Hottentot physician and surgeon, as has been hinted, is the same person; and though these gentlemen scarce ever saw a body dissected, it is said, they have pretty good notions of anatomy: they cup, bleed, make amputations, and restore dislocated limbs, with great dexterity; cholicks and pains in the stomach they relieve by cupping. Their cup is an horn of an ox, the edges cut very smooth: the doctor, having sucked the part where the pain lies, claps on the cup; and, after it has remained some time, till he thinks the part is insensible, he pulls off the horn-cup, and makes two or three incisions, half an inch in length, with a common knife, having no other instrument: after

which, he applies the cup again, which falls off when it is full of blood, but the patient it is said, suffers great pain in the operation. If the pain removes to another part, they rub it with hot fat; and, if that does not ease the pain, they use the cup again on the part last affected; and, if the second cupping does not relieve the patient, they give him inward medicines, being infusions or powders of certain dried roots and herbs.

They let blood in plethories and indispositions of that kind, having no other instrument than a common knife; and, if bleeding will not effect the cure, they give the patient physic. For head-achs, which they are pretty much subject to in calm weather, they shave their heads in furrows, as they do when they are in mourning; but a brisk gale of wind usually carries off the head-ach, without any other application; and this they do not often want at the cape.

They seldom make any other amputations, than of the fingers of such women as marry a second time, or oftener; and, in this case, they bind the joint below that which is to be cut off very tight, with a dried sinew, and then cut off the joint at once with a knife, stopping the blood with the juice of myrrh-leaves; after which, they wrap up the finger in some healing herbs, and never any part of the finger receives any hurt beyond the amputation.

They have little or no skill in setting fractured limbs; but are pretty dexterous at restoring of dislocations.

The Hottentot physician, in case he meets with a foul stomach, gives the juice of aloe leaves; and, if one dose will not do, repeats it two or three days; and, for any inward ail, they give chiefly the powders or infusions of wild sage, wild figs and fig leaves, buchu, garlic or fennel: but whatever the disease be, it seems the patient never fails to sacrifice a bullock, or a sheep, upon his recovery.

These people are exceedingly superstitious, and fond of divination. In order to know the fate of a sick person, they slay a sheep alive; after having its skin intirely taken off, if the poor animal is able to get up and run away, it is deemed a propitious omen; but, on the contrary, if the excruciating pain kills it, they imagine that the patient will certainly die, and accordingly give him up intirely to nature, without taking any farther care of him.

Whatever they believe of departed souls, they have no notion either of heaven or hell, or of a state of rewards or punishments; this is evident from the behaviour of a dying Hottentot, and those about him: neither he nor his friends offer up any prayers to their gods for the salvation of his soul; or even mention the state of departed souls, or their apprehensions of his being happy or miserable after death: however, they set up such terrible howlings and shriekings, when the sick man is in his last agonies, that they may be heard, says our author, at a mile's distance; and yet these very people are frequently guilty of murdering their antient parents, as well as their innocent children.

When the father of a family is become perfectly useless and superannuated, he is obliged to assign over his stock of cattle, and every thing else he has in the world, to his eldest son; and in default of sons, to his next heir male: after which, the heir erects a tent or hut in some unfrequented place, a good distance from the kraal or camp he belongs to; and, having assembled the men of the kraal, acquaints them with the condition of his superannuated relation, and desires their consent to expose him in the distant hut; to which the kraal scarce ever refuse their consent. Whereupon a day being appointed to carry the old man to the solitary tent, the heir kills an ox, and two or three sheep, and invites the whole village to feast and be merry with him; and at the end of the entertainment, all the neighbourhood come and take a formal leave of the old wretch, thus condemned to be starved or devoured by wild beasts (which seems to be the most cruel and ill-natured part of the whole tragedy): then the unfortunate creature is laid upon one of their carriage oxen, and carried to his last home, attended to the place, where he is to be buried alive, by most of his neighbours. The old man being taken down, and set in the middle of the hut provided for him, the company return to their kraal, and he never sees the face of a human creature afterwards: they never so much as enquire whether he was starved to death, or devoured by wild beasts: he is no more thought of, than if he had never been. In the same manner they deal with a superannuated mother; only as she has nothing she can call her own, she has not the trouble of assigning her effects to her son.

When the Hottentots are upbraided with this unparalleled piece of barbarity, they reply, it would be a much greater

greater cruelty to suffer an old creature to languish out a miserable life, and to be many years a dying, than to make this quick dispatch with them; and that it is out of their extreme tenderness they put an end to the lives of these old wretches; all the arguments in the world against the inhumanity of the custom, can make no impression on them: and, indeed, as long as the Dutch have resided at the cape, they have not been able to break them of one single custom, or prevail with them to alter any part of their conduct, how barbarous or absurd soever: and, it seems, the captain of a kraal is not exempted from seeing his funeral solemnized in this manner, while he is alive, if he happens to become useless. And this leads me to treat of such funerals as are solemnized after the person is no more.

As soon as the sick man resigns his breath, he is immediately bundled up, neck and heels together, in his sheep-skin mantle, exceeding close, so that no part of the corpse appears: then the captain of the kraal with some of the seniors, search the neighbouring country for some cavity in a rock, or the den of a wild beast, to bury it in, never digging a grave, if they can find one of these within a moderate distance. After which, the whole kraal, men and women, prepare to attend the corpse, seldom permitting it to remain above ground more than six hours. When all things are ready, all the neighbourhood assemble before the door of the deceased, the men sitting down on their heels in one circle, and resting their elbows on their knees (their usual posture) as the women do in another: here they clap their hands and howl, crying, Bo, bo, bo! (i. e. father) lamenting their loss. The corpse then being brought out on that side the tent, where the person died, and not at the door, the bearers carry him in their arms to the grave, the men and women follow it in different parties, but without any manner of order, crying all the way, Bo, bo, bo! and wringing their hands, and performing a thousand ridiculous gestures and grimaces, which is frequently the subject of the Dutchmen's mirth; it being impossible, it is said, to forbear laughing at the antic tricks which they on such occasions exhibit.

The corpse being put into the cavity prepared for it, they stop up the mouth of it with ant hills, stones, and pieces of wood, believing the ants will feed on the corpse, and soon consume it. The grave being stopped up, the men and women rendezvous again before the tent of the deceased, where they repeat their howling, and frequently call upon the name of their departed friend: after which two of the oldest men get up; and one of them going into the circle of the men, and the other into the circle of the women, urine upon every one of the company; and, where the kraals are so very large, that two cannot find water enough for this ceremony, they double or treble the number. Then the old men go into the tent of the deceased; and, having taken up some ashes from the fire-place, they sprinkle them upon the bodies of the people, blessing them as they go: and, if the deceased was a person of distinction, this is acted over again several days. But we should have remembered, that the ceremony always concludes with an entertainment. If the deceased had any cattle, a sheep is killed on the occasion: and the caul being powdered with buchu, is tied about the heir's neck, who is forced to wear it while it rots off, which is no great penance, all stinks being perfumes to a Hottentot. All the relations also wear the cauls of sheep about their necks; which it seems is their mourning, unless the children of the deceased are so poor, that they cannot kill a sheep; and then they shave their heads in furrows of about an inch broad, leaving the hair on of the same breadth between every furrow.

It is scarcely possible to come at an Hottentot's religious notions; he is sparing of his words, and laconic in his answers upon all occasions: but when religious topics are introduced, he generally conceals his sentiments in silence. Some on this account have doubted whether the Hottentots have any religion at all: but the most intelligent among the Dutch at the cape positively affirm, that they believe in a Supreme Being, whom they stile Gounya Tequoa, or God of gods, and fancy that his place of residence is beyond the moon. They allow that Gounya Tequoa is a humane benevolent being, yet they have no mode of worshipping him; for which they give this reason, "That he cursed their first parents for having greatly offended him, on which account their posterity have never from that time paid him any homage."

The moon they believe is an inferior visible god, and the representative of the high and invisible: that she has the direction of the weather; and therefore they pray to her when it is unseasonable. They never fail to assemble

and worship this planet at the new and full moon, let the weather be never so bad; and though they distort their bodies, grin, and put on very frightful looks, crying and howling in a terrible manner, yet they have some expressions that shew their veneration and dependence on this inferior deity; as, 'Mutichi Atze, I salute you; you are welcome: Cheraqua kaka chori Ounqua, grant us pasture for our cattle and plenty of milk.' These and other prayers to the moon they repeat, frequently dancing and clapping their hands all the while; and, at the end of every dance, crying, Ho, ho, ho! raising and falling their voices, and using abundance of odd gestures, that appear ridiculous to European spectators; and which no doubt, made them at first, before they knew any thing of their language, conclude, that this could not be the effect of devotion, especially when the people themselves told them, it was not an act of religion, but only intended for their diversion. But to return to our subject.

The whole night is thus spent in shouting, singing, and dancing, with prostrations on the earth, and even part of the next day, with some short intervals, never resting, unless they are quite spent with the violence of the action; and then they squat down upon their heels, holding their heads between their hands, and resting their elbows on their knees; and, after a little time, they start up again, falling with all their might to singing and dancing in a circle as before.

There is a fly about the bigness of a hornet, called by some the gold beetle, which the Hottentots likewise adore: whenever they see this insect approach their kraal, they all assemble about it, and sing and dance round it while it remains there, strewing over it the powder of buchu, by botanists called spiræam; which when it is dried and pulverized, they always powder themselves with at festivals. They strew the same powder also over the tops of their tents, and over the whole area of the kraal, as a testimony of their veneration for the adored fly. They sacrifice also two sheep as a thanksgiving for the favour shewn their kraal, believing they shall certainly prosper after such a visit: and if this insect happens to light upon a tent, they look upon the owner of it for the future as a saint, and pay him more than usual respect. The best ox of the kraal also is immediately sacrificed, to testify their gratitude to the little winged deity, and to honour the saint he has been pleased thus to distinguish: to whom the entrails of the beast, the choicest morsel in their opinion, with the fat and the caul is presented; and the caul being twisted like a rope, the saint ever after wears it like a collar about his neck day and night, till it putrefies and rots off; and the saint only feasts upon the entrails of the beast, while the rest of the kraal feed upon the joints, that are not in so high esteem among them: with the fat of the sacrifice also the saint anoints his body from time to time, till it is all spent: and if the fly lights upon a woman she is no less revered by the neighbourhood, and entitled to equal honours.

Words cannot express the agonies the Hottentots are in, if any European attempts to take or kill one of these insects, as the Dutch will sometimes seem to attempt, to put them in a fright: they will beg and pray, and fall prostrate on the ground, to procure the liberty of this little creature, if it falls into a Dutchman's hands; they are on such an occasion, in no less consternation than the Indians near fort St. George, when the kite, with a white head, which they worship, is in danger. If a soldier takes one of these alive, and threatens to wring the neck of it off, the Indians will gather in crowds about him, and immediately collect the value of a shilling or two, to purchase the liberty of the captive bird they adore. But to return to the Hottentots: they imagine if this little deity should be killed, all the cattle would die of diseases, or be destroyed by wild beasts; and they themselves should be the most miserable of men, and look upon that kraal to be doomed to some imminent misfortune, where this animal is seldom seen.

These people likewise pay a sort of religious worship to the souls of departed saints and heroes; they consecrate fields, mountains, woods, and rivers to their memory; and when, at any time, they happen to pass by such consecrated ground, they put up a short prayer to the subordinate deity of the place, and sometimes dance round, and clap their hands as when worshipping the moon.

Several reverend divines have been sent by the Hollanders to the cape as missionaries, who have spared no pains to bring the Hottentots off from their idolatry, and induce them to embrace christianity: even their covetousness and ambition have been applied to, and temporal rewards offered them, on condition of their being instructed in the principles

ciples of christianity. But no motives whatever, whether those relating to this or another state, have yet been able to make the least impression on any one of them: they hold fast and hug their ancient superstitions, and will hear of no other religion; which, with me, is a great argument that they have a religion or superstition of their own; for were they governed only by secular motives, and had no notion of God or providence, why should they not accept the rewards the Dutch offer, and importune them to accept of, on their embracing Christianity? and I am apt to think, that the reason that they neither imitate the Europeans in their building, planting or cloathing, is because they imagine themselves to be religiously obliged to follow the customs of their ancestors; and that, if they should deviate from them in the least of these matters, it might make way for a total change of their religion and manners, which they cannot think of without detestation.

We are told by Kolben that one of the Dutch governors at the cape bred up an Hottentot from his infancy, obliging him to follow the fashions and customs of the Europeans, to be taught several languages, and to be fully instructed in the principles of the Christian religion, cloathing him handsomely, and treating him, in all respects, as a person for whom he had a high esteem; and let him know, that he designed him for some beneficial and honourable employment. The governor afterwards sent him a voyage to Batavia, where he was employed, under the commissary his friend, for some time, till that gentleman died; and then he returned to the cape of Good Hope: but, having paid a visit to the Hottentots of his relations and acquaintance, he threw off all his fine cloaths, bundled them up, and laid them at the governor's feet, and desired he would give him leave to renounce his Christianity, and live and die in the religion and custom of his ancestors; only begged the governor would give him leave to keep the hanger and collar he wore for his sake; which while the governor was deliberating with himself upon, scarce believing the fellow to be in earnest, the young Hottentot took the opportunity of running away, and never came near the cape afterwards, thinking himself extremely happy that he had exchanged his European cloaths for a sheep skin and the rest of the Hottentots dress and ornaments: the English East India company, we are informed, made the like experiment, bringing over two of that nation hither, whom they cloathed decently after the European manner, and used them, in all respects, with the greatest goodness and gentleness, hoping, by that means, to be better informed of the condition of their country, and whether it might be worth the while to make a settlement there: but the two Hottentots only learnt English enough to bewail their misfortune in being brought from their country and their friends; and, after two years trial of them, being again set on shore at the cape, they immediately stripped off their European cloaths, and, having taken the sheep skin mantle again, were highly delighted on their restoration to liberty.

SECT. V.

Of the various Traffic and Commerce, sundry Manufactures, Artificers, Manners, Labours, Language, Figures, &c. of the HOTTENTOTS.

SOMETIMES the Hottentots employ themselves in making arms, viz, bows and arrows, lances and darts, bartering them with the rich for cattle, to begin the world with: others get elephants teeth, and what they do not use in making rings and ornaments for themselves, are generally disposed of, it is thought, to the Portuguese and other Europeans, who touch at Terra de Natal, and other parts of the eastern or western coast. The Hottentots sell very few teeth to the Dutch; though it is manifest they kill abundance of elephants: they supply the Hollanders however with cattle, and take wine, brandy or tobacco, in return; and Kolben relates that an ox may be purchased of them for a pound of tobacco, and a large sheep for half a pound. As to coin, the reader will conclude they have none; nor do they ever see any, unless some small pieces of money the Dutch sometimes give them for their wages at the cape; and it must not be forgot, that the Hottentots find abundance of ostrich's eggs in the sand, which they barter with the sea-faring men, that touch at the cape, for brandy and tobacco; every sailor almost being proud of bringing home one of these egg shells to his friends, after he has fried and eaten the yolk, which makes a large pancake, and is tolerable food, though of a strong nature.

It is said their butchers are great artists in their way,

and handle a knife as dexterously as an anatomist: having tied the hind and fore legs of a sheep, they throw the creature on his back, and with cords, two of them extend it to its full stretch, while a third rips it up; so that all the entrails appear: then, with one hand, he tears the guts from the carcase, and, with the other, stirs the blood, avoiding as much as he can the breaking any of the blood-vessels about the heart; so that the sheep is a long time a dying: in the mean time he gives the guts to another, who just rids them of the filth, and rinses them in water, and part of them are broiled and eaten amongst them, before the sheep is well dead: having scooped the blood out of the body of the animal with their hands or sea shells, they cut the rest of the guts in small pieces, and stew them in the blood, which is the Hottentots favourite dish. An ox also is killed in the same barbarous manner; being thrown upon his back, and his legs extended with cords, he is ripped up and his guts taken out first; in which cruel operation the beast is half an hour a dying: they separate the parts with great exactness, dividing the flesh, the bones, the membranes, muscles, veins, and arteries, and laying them in several parcels every thing entire. The bones also are taken out of the flesh, and laid together in such order, that they might be easily formed into an exact skeleton: these they boil by themselves, and get the marrow out of them, with which they anoint their bodies. Of the sheep skin, as has been observed already, they make a mantle, if it be large; but, if it is small, they cut it into thongs, to adorn their women's legs: and the hide of an ox serves either to cover their tents, or to make girths and straps of, with which they bind their baggage on their carriage oxen when they decamp; and, if they have no other use for their ox-hides, they lay them by, and when distressed for food, make use of them.

There is another artificer, who is both selmonger and taylor: that is, he dresses skins after their way, and then makes them into mantles: he takes a sheep skin just flayed off, and, rubbing it well with fat, the skin becomes tough and smooth; and, if it be for one of his countrymen, he rubs it over also with fresh cow-dung, and lays it in the sun till it is dry: then he rubs it with fat and cow-dung again: which he repeats several times, till it becomes perfectly black, and stinks so, that no European can bear it; and then, with a little shaping and sewing, it is a compleat mantle for a Hottentot: but, if it be dressed for a Dutchman, he only rubs the skin well with fat, which secures the wool from coming off. If he be to dress an ox's hide, he rubs the hairy side with wood ashes; then sprinkling it with water, rolls it up, and lays it a day or two in the sun; which expedients effectually bring off the hair; this skin is then well greased, stretched out, and dried again, when it is good leather in their estimation.

Their smiths do not only fashion their iron, but melt it from the ore: they find plenty of iron stones in several parts of their country; and having got a heap of these, they put them into a hole in the ground, heated and prepared for their purpose: then they make a fire over the stones, which they supply with fuel, and keep up till the iron melts; and then it runs into another hole, which they make for a receiver, a little lower than the first: as soon as the iron in the receiver is cold they break it to pieces with stones; and, heating the pieces again in other fires, beat them with stones, till they shape them into the heads of lances, darts, arrows, and bows, and such weapons as they use; for they scarce ever form any other utensils, but arms of this metal: they get the hardest flat stone, according to monsieur Vogel, and, laying the iron upon it, as upon an anvil, beat it with another round stone, which serves them for a hammer; then they grind it upon the flat stone, and polish it as nicely as any European artificer could do with all his tools: they have some copper ore too, which they melt in like manner: but they make only toys and ornaments for their dress of this metal: nor, indeed, do they ever work in iron, but when they want weapons. They would never labour, if their necessities did not sometimes compel them to it: but, when they do, no people work harder, or more indefatigably; for they never leave a piece of work, till it is complete.

The ivory-turner makes the ivory rings that are worn ornamentally about the arms; and considering that his only tool is a common clasp knife, which he procures from the Dutch, the workmanship is exceedingly clever.

The maker of earthen vessels, or potter, is another art: but this, it seems, they are all dexterous at, every family making the pots and pans they want. For these they use only the earth of ant-hills, clearing them of all sand and gravel; after which they work it together with the bruised

ant eggs, that are said to constitute an extraordinary cement. When they have moulded these materials into a kind of paste, they take as much of them as will make one of their pots, and fashion it by hand upon a flat stone, making it of the form of a Roman urn; then they smooth it within and without very carefully, not leaving the least roughness upon the surface; and, having dried it in the sun two or three days, they put the pot into a hole in the ground, and burn it, by making a fire over it; and, when they take it out, it appears perfectly black: every family also makes their own mats, with which they cover their tents or huts; but this is chiefly the business of the women: they gather the flags and rushes by the river side, or weave or plat them into mats so closely, it is said, they cannot be penetrated by either the weather or light.

The rope-maker, who has no better materials, than such flags and rushes as the mats are made of, deserves our notice, as their work appears almost as strong as that made of hemp: the Dutch, at the cape, buy and use them in ploughing, and in draught-carriages.

The natives all travel on foot, except the aged and infirm; and these are carried on their baggage oxen. As there are no inns or places for refreshment, the travelling Hottentot calls at the kraals in his way, where he meets with a hearty welcome from his countrymen, who endeavour to shew their hospitality to strangers, whether of their own country or of Europe. Such indeed is the general urbanity of these people, and their strict integrity when any confidence is placed in them, that when the Hollanders travel either on foot or horseback, if they cannot reach a European settlement, they also call at the kraals of the Hottentots, where they are complimented with a hut, and such provision as they have, or they may lie in the area of the kraal, in the open air, if they please, and the weather be good; and here they are secure, both from robbers and wild beasts; for the bushis banditti on the mountains are dangerous, as they give no quarter; but the Hottentot nations in general hold them in abhorrence, and unanimously concur in seizing and punishing them, whenever they have an opportunity.

As to their language, it is very inarticulate and defective; one word signifies several things, the definitive meaning being determined by the manner of pronouncing; and the pronunciation is so harsh and confused, that they seem to stammer in all they speak. Hence, though they are easily taught to understand other languages, they can seldom be brought to speak them so well, as to make themselves understood.

For the reader's satisfaction we shall here subjoin a small Hottentot vocabulary; khauna, signifies a lamb; kgou, a goose; bunqvaa, trees; knomm, to hear; quaqu, a pheasant; tkaka, a whale; horri, beasts in general; knabou, a fowling-piece; qua-ara-ho, a wild ox; ounequa, the arms; quienkha, to fall; likhanee, a dog; konkequa, a captain; quas, the neck; quan, the heart; kgoyes, a buck or doe; tikquoa, a god; komma, a house; khoaa, a cat; kowkuri, iron; konkekerey, a hen; thoukou, a dark night; tkoume, rice; ghoudie, a sheep; toya, the wind; tkaa, a valley; tkaonoklau, gunpowder; kamkamma, the earth; quaouw, thunder; duckatere, a duck; kamma, water; quayha, an ass; naew, the ears; kirri, a stick; nombha, the beard; ka-a, to drink; duriesfa, an ox; hek-kaa, an ox of burden; ourvie, butter; houteo, a sea-dog; bikgua, the head; kamma, a stag; kouquil, a pigeon; anthuri, tomorrow; kou, a tooth; khamouna, the devil; hakqua, a horse; koo, a son; kammo, a stream; tika, grass; toqua, a wolf; koanqua, the mouth; khou, a peacock; gona, a boy; gois, a girl; khoakamma, a baboon; kerhanhou, a star; mu, an eye; tquassouw, a tyger, &c. &c.

The Hottentots have only ten numerical terms, which they repeat twice to express the multiplication of the first term, and three times to express the re-multiplication of the latter. Their terms are: q'kui, one; k'kam, two; kouna, three; kakka, four; koo, five; nanni, six; hounko, seven; khissi, eight; khaissi, nine; ghissi, ten.

SECT. V.

Full Account of the Empires of MONOMOTAPA, and MONOEMUGI; describing their Boundaries and Extent, Provinces, Rivers, the Inhabitants, their Customs, Dress, Laws, Ceremonies, and several interesting Particulars.

MONOMOTAPA is one of the largest empires in all Africa; being bounded on the west, by the mountains of Caffraria; on the east, by the kingdom of So-

fala; on the north, by the river Cuama, which separates it from Monoemugi; and, on the south, by the river de Spiritu Sancto. It is situated between the fourteenth and twenty-fifth degrees of south latitude, and between the forty-first and fifty-sixth of east longitude, being six hundred and fifteen miles from north to south, in breadth, and six hundred and seventy from east to west, in length.

There are six provinces, or petty kingdoms, in this country, the governors of which are vassals to the king or emperor of Monomotapa. The names of these provinces are Monomotapa Proper, Quiteve, Manica, Inhambana, Sabia, and Inhamior.

Monomotapa Proper is the most considerable of the whole, which is peculiarly distinguished for containing the capital city of the empire. It is situated in eighteen degrees twenty-seven minutes south latitude, and thirty-one degrees ten minutes east longitude from London. It is a large and populous city, and the streets very long and spacious. The houses are built with timber and earth, and are of different sizes, some being much more lofty than others, according to the quality of those that occupy them: the roofs are large, and formed in the shape of a bell; and all of them are neatly whitewashed both within and without.

The greatest ornament of the city is the imperial palace, which is a large spacious fabric, well flanked with towers, and has four avenues or stately gates, constantly kept by a numerous guard. The inside consists of a great variety of sumptuous apartments, spacious and lofty halls, all adorned with a magnificent kind of cotton tapestry, the manufacture of the country. The floors, ciplings, beams, and rafters, are all either gilt, or plated with gold curiously wrought, as are also the chair of state, tables, benches, &c. The candlesticks and branches are made of ivory inlaid with gold, and hang from the cieling by chains of the same metal, or of silver gilt. The plates, dishes, and bowls belonging to the emperor's table, are made of a sort of porcelain, curiously wrought on the edges with sprigs of gold resembling those of coral. In short, so rich and magnificent is this palace, that it may be said to vie with that which distinguishes an eastern monarch.

There are several other towns in this province, all of which are very inconsiderable, except one called Tete, which is remarkable for being the residence of the Portuguese Jesuits, and is large and well inhabited.

Quiteve lies to the south of Monomotapa Proper, which is bounded on the east by Sabia, on the west by Caffraria, and on the south by Manica. The king or governor of the province usually resides here in this city, which is large and populous.

Manica is bounded on the east, by Sabia; on the west, by Caffraria: on the north, by Quiteve; and, on the south, by the river de Spiritu Sancto. The capital town is called after the name of the province, but it is a small place, and very poorly inhabited. The river de Spiritu Sancto, by some called Manica, springs from the mountains of Lupata, situated in nineteen degrees south latitude, and twenty-six degrees east longitude. It runs first from north to south, after which it bends its course to the south-east, then passes along the kingdom of Manica, and empties itself into a small gulf, with which it is immediately joined by the sea.

The province of Inhambana lies southward from the above province under the tropic of Capricorn, so that the air is here exceeding sultry. The capital town is called Tongue, which, though small, is very populous, owing to the number of Portuguese that become inhabitants.

Sabia is a very large province, and well watered by several excellent rivers, one of which is called Sabia, and the other Aroe. The island of Bocica, and the capes of St. Sebastian and St. Catharine, are on the coast of Sabia.

Inhamior, is a very extensive province, but it doth not contain any thing that merits particular notice. Its chief town is of the same name; and here the king or governor of the province has his chief residence.

Monomotapa is a much more wholesome climate, than many other parts of Africa; and the soil is so fertile, that it produces a great plenty of the principal necessities of life. It abounds with pasture grounds, on which are bred prodigious quantities of cattle, especially oxen and cows. The chief grains are rice and millet, and they have plenty of various kinds of tropical fruits. In the woods and forests are great numbers of wild beasts, particularly elephants, the latter of which the natives kill not only for their flesh, but also for their teeth, which they make a considerable advantage of by selling to the Portuguese, while the former furnishes them with meat.

There

There are several rivers in this country, and on the banks of most of them grow many fine trees and sugar-canes without any culture. They abound with a variety of excellent fish, and in some of them is found gold that is swept away from the mines through which they run into the inward parts of the country.

The generality of the natives are tall, well shaped, and healthy; they are quite black, and have woolly hair, which they decorate with a variety of trinkets. They are of a very docile disposition; notwithstanding which, they are fond of being engaged in war, and prefer that employment to any other. The poorer sort are brought up to diving; and their chief business is, to get the sand or mud from the bottom of the rivers, ponds, and lakes, from which they separate the gold that is intermixed with it, and barter it with the Portuguese for cotton and various other articles of equal utility.

The poor or midling class of people wear a piece of cotton cloth of various colours round the waist, from whence it reaches to the knees; but the upper part of the body is entirely naked. The garments of the richer sort are of the same form, but more costly and elegant, being made of Indian silks, or of cotton embroidered with gold; over which they generally wear the skin of some wild beast.

Their common food is the flesh of oxen and elephants, with bread made of rice or millet, which is baked into thin cakes; and their drink is either sour milk or water. The better sort mostly esteem palm-wine, which is reckoned a royal liquor, and greatly used at court; though some of them use strong liquors made from honey, millet, rice, and various kinds of fruits.

Polygamy is allowable here, as in most parts of Africa, every man being permitted to take as many wives as he can maintain; but the first wife is the principal; and the father's estate devolves to the children which she bears.

These natives pay a religious worship to the dead, every one preserving the bones of the most distinguished of his family. These they hang up in a court, and know to whom they belonged by fixing certain marks on them. Every seventh day the relations go and visit them, being all dressed in white, which is the mourning of the country. They spread a little table before them with provisions, then pray to the deceased for the king's prosperity, and afterwards sit down and regale themselves, which they look upon as the greatest honour they can confer on their departed relations or friends.

Some of the inhabitants here have been converted by the Portuguese to the Roman catholic religion; but the principal part of them are idolaters, and practice the most superstitious maxims. They hold a feast on the first day of every new moon, as also on the anniversary of the emperor's birth. They shew a singular veneration for a certain virgin, whom they call *Al Firoo*, and have temples erected in honour of her: they also confine some of their daughters in nunneries, of which they have several, obliging them during life to observe strict celibacy.

The king or emperor of Monomotapa, has a prodigious number of wives, the principal of whom are the daughters of some of his vassal princes: but the first only is called empress or queen. He always wears the same kind of dress, which consists of a robe made of a silk stuff, manufactured in the kingdom: it reaches from the waist to the knees, and is fastened with a girdle richly bedecked with diamonds and other precious stones. He has also a brocaded mantle over his shoulders, and on his legs he wears buskins, richly wrought and embroidered with gold, pearls, &c. On his head is a turban, the band of which is ornamented with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and other precious stones; and his neck is decorated with a magnificent carcanet, or collar, enriched with jewels of equal value.

This emperor is exceedingly fond of palm-wine, great quantities of which he always keeps by him, in vessels made of horn, curiously wrought; but he generally mixes with it manna, musk, or some other high scented perfumes, of which also the courtiers and better sort of people are great admirers, and use them not only in their victuals and drink, but also in their apartments, walks, &c. &c.

His majesty's victuals is always dressed by the princesses and ladies of the first rank, who bring and serve it at his table: they discharge this business in their turns, and think it the highest honour to be so employed. During his meal, he is accompanied by a band of musicians: but these, before they come into his presence, must be hoodwinked, or have a veil before their faces, to prevent their seeing him either eat or drink. He is commonly attended by a great number of officers, who keep a most profound

silence, except when he drinks, or happens to sneeze or cough, at which times one of them cries aloud, "Pray for the health and prosperity of the emperor:" as soon as the words are repeated, they all kneel, then rise, and testify their joy and loyalty by loud acclamations.

The king, whenever he goes abroad, is generally carried in a stately sedan or chair, over which is a magnificent canopy richly embroidered, and bespangled with pearls and precious stones; and if the weather happens to be cloudy or misty, four lighted torches are carried before him, to clear and perfume the air. He is always attended by a prodigious retinue, besides his own guard, and a numerous band of musicians. On these occasions his subjects pay him the most profound homage and respect, wishing him all imaginable success and prosperity, and shewing their attachment to him by sacrificing a deer, or some other victim, on the road through which he passes.

This monarch having many powerful vassals, far remote from his capital, takes care to bring up their successors at his court as hostages of their fidelity. They have colleges and academies appropriated for their education at his expence, and he endeavours to win their affection by the greatest acts of munificence. He also takes great pains to preserve the respect of his subjects: he exacts no taxes or tribute from them, instead of which he is satisfied with a trifling present, when they apply to him for any particular favour. This is an universal custom from an inferior to a superior of every rank and denomination, and is esteemed the highest mark of respect that can be shewn. His subjects always obey his commands with the greatest cheerfulness, instead of attending upon him with reluctance; for if at any time he orders them to labour either at the gold mines, or any other service, as is seldom the case, he always sends them cows, or other presents.

The officers and ministers of the king of this country, both civil and military, as well as his soldiery, who subsist by his pay, are indeed obliged, instead of taxes, to pay him a kind of service of seven days in every month, either in cultivating his grounds, or any other work he thinks proper to employ them in; and the lords and nobles are also bound to the same service when required, unless by some particular privilege granted to their family or office, in time past, they are exempted.

His majesty maintains a numerous army; but he has no cavalry, there being but few horses, and those not fit for the purpose, throughout his dominions. The weapons used by the soldiers are bows and arrows, the javelin, scymetar, cutlass, and dagger, and some of them carry a hatchet, all which they handle with great dexterity, being trained up to it from their youth. Wherever the emperor encamps, they always erect a large wooden house, in which a fire must be kept constantly burning during his stay. Neither he nor any of his soldiers are permitted to wash their hands or face while the war continues; and when it is over and they have gained a complete victory, the spoil is divided, the emperor reserving one part to himself, and distributing the rest in proportionable shares to his officers and men. This equitable distribution has an excellent effect, as it tends to animate the men, and make them fight with distinguished intrepidity.

The laws in this country are very few, and so little occasion is there for the confinement of criminals, that there is not a single prison throughout the whole empire. Justice is administered in every part of it with the greatest expedition; the judges hear the reasons and depositions on both sides, and then pronounce sentence, which the emperor either confirms or annuls; and every criminal is executed in the open fields immediately after conviction. If the complaint or crime be of such a nature that it cannot be so quickly adjudged, and there be any danger of the person accused making his escape, he is ordered to be tied to a tree, and a guard is set over him, till he is either acquitted or condemned. In trifling matters they only inflict corporal punishment, which is done by giving the party a certain number of strokes with a knotted cord, according to the nature of the crime: but those found guilty of murder are condemned to die.

In regard to the gold mines in this empire, from which the Portuguese have reaped considerable advantages, the chief of them are in the province of Manica, near the capital of the same name. They extend themselves through a large, spacious, champaign, wild, sandy, and barren country, about nine miles in circumference, and surrounded with high mountains. They are situated about one hundred and fifty miles west of the market, or place where the commerce for it is carried on. The natives that work at them, find great difficulty in gathering the

the metal, which is here in dust, for want of water to separate it from the earth, so that they are obliged to take the whole as they dig it, to other distant places, where they keep large cisterns and reservoirs for that purpose. They have one convenience, however, which is, that they need not dig lower than six or seven feet, all the rest being a hard solid rock beneath that depth.

There are also other mines in different parts of the empire that produce excellent metal, particularly those near Batua, a small place bordering on the province of Manica, and extending itself from the mountains of the Moon to the river Magnico, whose governor is a vassal to the emperor. These mines are reckoned the most antient in the whole empire, on account of some castles in their neighbourhood, which bear the greatest marks of antiquity, and are supposed to have been built as a safeguard to them. The most distinguished of these buildings is situated in the middle of a large spacious plain, and surrounded by the mines above-mentioned. Its walls are not high, but of the thickness of twenty-five feet; the stones are laid regularly one upon another, but without any kind of cement to fasten them together. On the front, just over the great gate, is a stone larger than the rest, and upon it an inscription in characters, or rather Hieroglyphics, which are so unintelligible, that no person hath yet been able to decipher them. And at some distance from this building are several others, all situated on some eminence or rising ground, and amongst them is a tower about seventy feet high. The natives imagine them to be the works of demons, being unable to conceive how such structures could be raised.

There are several considerable places between the mines and the sea coast, where fairs and markets are held for the sale of gold, particularly those towns which lie on the river Zezebe and Cuama, and where the Portuguese have built fortresses to keep the natives in awe, who come to those markets to exchange their gold for European and other commodities. In each of these markets they have an officer of their own, who decides all contests and differences that arise about their traffic; they have likewise churches and monasteries in most of these towns.

The Portuguese were first permitted by the emperor of Monomotapa to build forts here, in gratitude for the service they had done in contributing to reduce some revolted vassals to return to their obedience, as well as to enable them, on all such exigencies, to be near at hand to assist him. This was about the year 1640, since which time they have been on such good terms with the sovereigns of the empire, that they have made themselves masters of a tract of land on both sides the river Cuama for above one hundred and sixty miles; besides which, they have engrossed the whole commerce not only of the coast, but also the inland parts, and obtained to themselves some of the most considerable mines in the empire.

The natives, besides gold, bring great quantities of ivory, furs of sundry wild and tame beasts; and other valuable articles, in exchange for cloths of various sorts, glass beads of different sizes and colours, and other trifling trinkets, which renders it a very advantageous commerce to the Portuguese.

Monoemugi, is a considerable empire; but, being an inland country, is very little frequented by the Europeans. It is bounded on the north, by Abyssinia; on the east, by part of Zanguebar; on the south, by the empire of Monomotapa; and, on the west, by Matamba and Makoko.

We have no particulars relative to this empire, but what are chiefly founded on the authority of the negroes, who carry on a commerce with it, European travellers not daring to venture themselves in it, not only by reason of the unwholesomeness of the climate, but also for fear of the inhuman Jaggas, who infest the interior parts of it, and massacre all that happen to fall in their way, without regard to age or sex.

It appears from the distance of the confines of this empire, that its extent is very great, though it cannot be ascertained. The emperor is a powerful and rich prince, and hath subdued most of the petty kingdoms about him to obedience; but some of them, especially on the north side, revolt, and put themselves under the protection of the Abyssinian or Monomotapan emperors. He is said to have many rich gold, silver, and copper mines in his dominions, by means of which he carries on a kind of commerce with those two empires, as also with some of the eastern coasters, with whom he is forced to exchange gold for Indian and European commodities, for want of having some sort of

his own on either the eastern or western sea. This obliged him to preserve a constant friendship with the maritime kingdoms of Quiloa, Mombasa, and Melinda, whose merchants furnish him with a variety of silks, cotton cloth, and other such merchandize. He also lives in friendship with the great makoko, another prince on the north of him, on account of the negro merchants who trade with the Portuguese, and carry on a considerable trade with him and his subjects by passing through his dominions.

Monoemugi is divided into five kingdoms, or provinces, all of which are governed by petty princes, subject to the emperor. The names of these are as follow; namely, Gingiro, Mujaco, Alaba, Cambate, and Monoemugi Proper.

Gingiro, which is a very large kingdom, lies between Narea, the most southern kingdom of Abyssinia, and Makoko and Cambate. Father Antony Fernandez, who travelled through this kingdom, says, the king preserves an extraordinary dignity, and that he contends with the sun; for which reason he never goes abroad, or gives audience, but before the sun rises, alledging that two suns cannot appear at once. The same person tells us, that his palace is no better than a cottage, which, when he dies, is always burnt, and the successor has a new one built for him, which is dedicated with the blood of two or three men of a certain family killed at the door, and on that account the said family is free from all other duties, which are so heavy, that they render this cruel composition acceptable; for when the king buys any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in slaves, and these are the sons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleasure.

The province of Mujaco, is bounded on the east, by Abyssinia; on the west, by Congo; on the north, by Nubia; and, on the south, by Makoko. It is a large kingdom, but very poorly inhabited; neither does it contain any thing that merits a particular description.

The province of Alaba, is very large, and situated to the east of Cambate: it reaches to the coast of Zanguebar, and is inhabited by a cruel people called Gallas. Many of the people are idolaters, and of the worst sort, for they offer human sacrifices.

The province of Cambate joins to that of Gingiro, on the west, and is bounded on the east by Alaba, on the north, by Abyssinia; on the south, by Makoko; and on the west, by Gingiro. This country pays a voluntary acknowledgement to the emperor of Abyssinia. Sangara, which is a poor place, and wretchedly inhabited, is the principal town in the kingdom.

The province of Monoemugi Proper, is bounded on the east by Congo, on the west by Tranquebar, on the north by Monomotapa, and on the south by Makoko. This is the largest division of the whole empire, and, except for its being the residence of the emperor, is no otherwise remarkable.

Exclusive of the respective mines of gold, silver, and copper, the chief productions of this country, are, palm wine and oil, and honey is here so plentiful, that the negroes cannot consume one third of it, so that they suffer the rest to be lost. The great misfortune is, that the air and climate is so unwholesome, that no missionaries, or other Europeans, dare venture so far into the inland parts, principally on account of those degenerate canibals the Jaggas, who infest them, as we before observed.

In this country the natives dress themselves in silks and cottons, which they buy of strangers, and wear collars of transparent beads which are brought them from Camboya: these beads also serve instead of money; gold and silver being considered of no value, as it is so very common here.

We have not any account of the laws, customs, ceremonies, and other particulars relating to the people; what we farther know of them is, that they are refractory and cruel in their dispositions, and most of them idolaters.

According to the Portuguese, there is on the east side of this empire a great lake full of small islands, from whence issue several rivers. They say that these islands abound in all sorts of fowl and cattle, and are inhabited by negroes.

It has been observed, respecting the little knowledge attained of this empire, and those parts that border on it to the southward, that "The farther we move southwards towards the cape of Good Hope, the farther we may be said to travel in the dark;" though all our maps unite to embellish both the coast and inland parts with such prospects, and pompous names of empires, kingdoms, and countries, crowded so close to each other, as might induce an unwary reader to imagine those countries to be as fully known

known as Europe itself; and were he to compare the vast shew in those maps with the little he finds in the relations and accounts of the African writers, he might be apt to conclude, from the former, that the far greater and most considerable part of the latter, like those of the antients, have been unhappily lost or destroyed. And this we think ourselves bound to apprise our readers of, lest they should be induced to ascribe our leaping over such a vast tract of land, overlooking so many seeming considerable kingdoms and states, to our neglect, rather than to what it is really owing, the want of proper intelligence, and to lose their time in a fruitless search after them, amongst that variety of authors that have written on this part of the world. The truth is, the Arabs, as well as the natives who inhabit this

whole eastern coast, are too jealous of, not to say incensed against all Europeans, to give them any intelligence of the inland parts; much less to let any of our missionaries penetrate into them, as they have more luckily done in the western. So that all the knowledge we have been able to get of them is chiefly founded on the precarious report of those trading coasters, and extends little farther than the names and situations of those kingdoms which make so fine an appearance in our maps; and might probably be represented by them in such a light, as rather to deter than encourage strangers to attempt making any farther discoveries of countries which bear so unpromising an aspect.

C H A P. VI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

Z A N G U E B A R.

S E C T. I.

Containing a General Account of ZANGUEBAR; also a Description of the Kingdoms of MOSAMBIQUE, MELINDA, and SOFALA, their Towns, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, their Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Laws, Ceremonies, &c.

ZANGUEBAR, by some stiled Zangibar, is so denominated from the word Zangue, which in the Arabic language signifies black, all the inhabitants being of that colour. It is bounded on the east, by the Indian ocean; on the west, by Monoemugi; on the north, by Anian, or Aian; and on the south, by the river Cuama, which separates it from Monomotapa. It is very disproportionate in its extent, being not more than three hundred and fifty miles in the broadest part, and one thousand four hundred in length.

This country has a very extensive coast, and there are many rivers and islands in it. This part of it is best known to the Europeans, owing to the conquests made here by the Portuguese. The inland part consists of a large, barren, and unhealthy track, the lands lying low, and are intersected by rivers, lakes, thick woods, forests, and marshy grounds. Most of the inhabitants are Arabs, the descendants of those who were banished here from their own country, on account of their adherence to the sect of Ali, whose tenets they profess and adhere to with great strictness.

Kilmanci, or Quilmanca, is one of the rivers that water this country: the latter name was given it by the Portuguese, from a fort and town so called, built by them at the mouth of it. This river hath its source near the mountains of Gravo, in the kingdom of Narea, subject to the Abyssinian empire, and near a village called Bochia, or Boxia; it is one of the most considerable in all this part of Africa, especially on account of the length and vast winding of its course, making a kind of circle toward the north and east, as it were to inclose into a kind of peninsula the kingdom of Gingiro, and divides the settlement of the wild Jaggas from Abyssinia; and thus far it is called by the name of Zebea. After this, it winds its course through the country of the Makorites, which it leaves on the east side, then crosses the equinoctial line, continues its course along the coast of Zanguebar, and discharges itself into the ocean in the kingdom of Melinda. Ptolemy, in his description of the coast of Africa, mentions this river, which is by most authors supposed to be the Rapte. They also divide the continental part of Zanguebar into two kingdoms, namely, Mosambique and Melinda: the former of which is divided into several provinces and lordships, and each of them has a peculiar dialect to itself.

The climate here is exceeding sultry and unwholesome, but the soil is very fertile, producing plenty of millet, rice,

and several sorts of pulse; as also abundance of orange and lemon-trees. It abounds likewise with wild beasts, particularly boars and elephants, the latter of which are so numerous, that the inhabitants are obliged to kindle fires round the fields, to prevent them from devouring the corn; nor dare they go abroad at night, without carrying lighted torches in their hands to frighten them away. They have likewise great plenty of black cattle here, and there are gold and silver mines in some parts of the country.

The natives of Mosambique are in general of low stature, very black, and have short, curled hair; they are naturally cruel, deceitful, and great enemies to strangers; but as they are naturally timorous, the Portuguese keep them under tolerable subjection. The men go quite naked, except only a small piece of cloth fastened round the waist; but the women have a kind of petticoat of coarse cotton cloth, which reaches from the waist to the knees. Their ornaments consist in three or four necklaces of coral beads of several colours, with brass rings in their ears, and bracelets of the same metal on their arms. They adorn their bodies by inscribing the figures of birds and animals on different parts of them.

Their common food is the flesh of elephants, with bread made of millet and rice: from the latter of which they also make a kind of beer. Their towns are very small, and their buildings low and despicable.

Gold, ebony, ivory, and slaves, are the chief wealth of these people, who traffic with the Portuguese only, for they will not suffer any other foreigners to enter their country, or trade with them.

Some of these people are Christians, and others Mahometans, but the principal part of them are idolaters, and use all those superstitious and ridiculous maxims practised in other idolatrous countries in Africa.

There are two small districts, called Mongalo and Angos, adjoining to the kingdom of Mosambique: the former is situated near the mouth of the river Cuama and is chiefly inhabited by Arabs; the other is also situated on a bank of the same river, about one hundred and sixty miles from the former. Both these places are fruitful, producing abundance of rice and millet, as also great quantities of cattle. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, but intermixed with negroes, who are idolaters, and remarkable for the lowness of their stature. They have no covering to the upper parts of their bodies, but round their waist they wrap pieces of cotton or silk; and a turban is worn by some of the better sort.

A commerce is carried on by the people of both these places with the inhabitants of Monomotapa, in gold, gum, elephants teeth, and other commodities.

Melinda is situated partly under the equinoctial line, and partly on both sides of it, for its southern boundaries lie under two degrees thirty minutes south latitude, and its northern extremity extends to the river Quilmanci, the mouth

mouth of which lies some minutes to the north of the equator. Its extent westward is not certainly known, but it is supposed to be bounded on that side by the country of the Mossogayes, a barbarous nation of the Caffres, and on the east by the western ocean.

The soil of this kingdom, which is well watered by rivers, is in general very fertile, and produces great abundance of the principal necessaries of life. It abounds also with a variety of fruit-trees, particularly orange, palm, and citron trees, the latter of which constantly perfume the air with an odoriferous scent: they have likewise several sorts of cattle, with plenty of game and poultry. Some of their sheep are remarkable for having large tails, which, on an average weigh from twenty to thirty pounds. Instead of bread, the poorer sort use potatoes, which are here exceeding large, fine, and in great plenty, they having but little wheat or rice.

The complexions of the inhabitants of this country are very different, some of them being quite black, some of an olive colour, and others almost white, particularly the women.

With respect to their dress, the ladies of quality always appear in silk, and adorn their necks and arms with rings of gold. The common people wear only a loose piece of cloth about their waists; but the better sort have a garment made of cotton or silk, which reaches from the waist to the knees, and adorn their necks and arms with strings of gold: the men wear a turban on their heads.

The capital city of this kingdom, called also Melinda, is situated in a very agreeable plain, and contains a great number of houses, most of which are well built with free-stone. It is the residence of the king, and in it are a great number of rich merchants who trade with the Indians of Camboya in gold, ivory, copper, quicksilver, and all sorts of stuffs. The Portuguese are so numerous in this city, that they have built no less than seventeen churches and chapels in it; and they have also erected a stately cross of gilt marble before one of the churches. The king's palace is a very spacious edifice, built of stone, and neatly ornamented; the apartments within are large, and decorated with very rich furniture.

The king is an arbitrary monarch; notwithstanding which, he is greatly revered by his subjects, whose affection he obtains, by being always ready to listen to and redress their complaints. Whenever he goes abroad, he is carried in a sedan, on the shoulders of four of the greatest men in the kingdom, and incense and other perfumes are burned before him as he passes along the streets. When he goes on any particular expedition, he rides on a horse richly caparisoned, amidst the universal acclamations of his people. On these occasions the priests sacrifice a hind before him, and, whilst the king's horse is passing over it, they observe very narrowly the motions of the creature's entrails, and, from the observations they make upon them, pretend to foretel whether his expedition will be attended with success. They also offer a sacrifice of the same kind, and with the same views, whenever an ambassador arrives from a foreign prince, to treat with the king on any important business. At every town the king enters, he is always met by a number of beautiful women, some of whom present him with flowers, and others go before him scattering various kinds of perfumes; some of them make a kind of music by beating sticks upon brass basons, while others join the melody of their voices with the sound of other instruments, singing the praises of the king; in short, they all endeavour to please and divert him, to the utmost of their abilities.

There are but few laws in this country, and those wholly vested in the power of the king. If any one is found guilty of murder, he is immediately punished with death; but thefts and trifling offences are punished only by fine. If any of the king's grandees are detected in having imposed falsities upon him, they are sentenced to pay a fine, or to receive a number of blows from the king's own hand, more or less, according to the greatness of the offence: in the latter case, the method of inflicting the punishment is as follows: They strip the criminal naked, and lay him on the ground, in the apartment of the palace assigned for that purpose; the king then gives him a number of blows on his back and breech with a kind of whip made with two long pieces of leather fastened to the end of a stick: as soon as the king thinks he has sufficiently scourged him, he desists, when the criminal rises, puts on his cloaths, kisses the king's feet, and thanks him in the most respectful and submissive manner. After this, the king orders him into his presence-chamber, when he grants him a pardon in the presence of his whole council, and forbids every

one from reflecting on him for what has passed. The criminal is then conducted out of the palace with great pomp, perfumed torches being carried before him by the rest of the nobles. They who calumniate their neighbours are also chastised in the same manner; but the punishment is inflicted by the king's officers, when this happens among the lower rank of people.

The people of this kingdom use bows and arrows, darts and shields for their weapons. They are said to be the best soldiers on the whole coast of Zanguebar; notwithstanding which, they would certainly have been overpowered by their neighbours, who have made several attempts on them, had not the Portuguese constantly assisted and protected them.

With respect to their religion, some of them are Mahometans, but the principal part are idolaters. The Portuguese have made but few proselytes in this kingdom, the people being obstinately tenacious of their own religious principles. The former have used many efforts to bring them to a sense of Christianity; but as these have proved ineffectual, they have long since desisted from any farther attempts, and now satisfy themselves with the liberty they enjoy of exercising their own religion without molestation.

Sofala is a very extensive kingdom, and, like that of Monomotapa, and others above described, is remarkable for containing many excellent mines of gold. It is bounded on the east, by the Indian sea; by the province of Manica, on the west; by the empire of Monomotapa, on the north; and by the kingdom of Sabia, on the south. It is, properly speaking, a continued coast, extending itself from the river Cuama, on the north, to that of Magnico, or De Spiritu Sancto, on the south. The inland parts are very trifling in extent, being confined on the west by the empire of Monomotapa, notwithstanding which, the whole kingdom is computed to be two thousand two hundred and fifty miles in circumference at the least.

Several rivers run through this country, the most considerable of which are the Cuama and the De Spiritu Sancto, both of which are supposed to take their rise from the lake Goyama. The former received its name from the Portuguese, but it is generally called by the natives Zambeze. It receives in its course, among others of less note, the Mangania, Mazeno, and Suabo; and after being divided into two branches, discharges itself into the Indian sea at four channels, from north to south, distinguished by the names of Kilimano, Linda, Cuama, and Luava. It is navigable upwards of one hundred and fifty leagues, and hath many large islands besides those formed by its several channels. This river washes down great quantities of gold, which the negroes gather when the waters are low, by diving to the bottom of such parts of it, as from practice they know contain the greatest abundance. They bring up the mud in buckets, which being properly levigated, the metal is afterwards easily discovered.

The principal capes on the coast, are, Corientes, St. Catharine, and Sebastian. The former is situated under the twenty-third degree of south latitude: it is noted for the many rocks, sands, and shelves, that lie between it and the island of St. Laurence, or Madagascar, and which cause frequent shipwrecks along that channel, to European vessels.

The soil of this country, from the mouth of the river De Spiritu Sancto to Cape Corientes, is very uneven, barren and desert; but from thence to the mouth of the river Cuama, it is very fertile, and produces great plenty of several sorts of grain, particularly rice and millet; in some parts of it there is also excellent pasturage, and the cattle bred here are also larger than in any part of Africa. The inland parts abound with various sorts of wild beasts, but particularly elephants, great numbers of which are annually killed by the natives, not only for the sake of their flesh, which is the chief part of their food, but also for their teeth, which they sell to great advantage to the Europeans. The number of those animals destroyed here by the natives, is said one year with another, to amount at least to four thousand. But the climate of this kingdom is exceeding unwholesome, occasioned by the vast number of marshes in it, which, being dried up in summer by the scorching heat of the sun, infect the air with pestilential steams.

With respect to the inhabitants of this kingdom, they are in general well shaped, and have short curled hair: they cover themselves only from the waist to the knees, with a garment made of silk or cotton: but they adorn their arms, wrists, legs, and ancles, with rings of gold, amber,

ber, or coloured beads; the better sort have swords by their sides, the handles of which are made of ivory curiously inlaid with precious stones, and they also wear a turban on their heads.

The people chiefly subsist on the flesh of elephants: large and small cattle, and fish, with which the rivers abound; and they use rice and millet, instead of bread. The better sort have a kind of beer, made of rice and millet; they have also some strong liquors made from honey, palm and other fruits; but the drink of the lower class is water.

The language of the country is chiefly spoken by the common people, but they also understand the Portuguese and Arabic. The coasters in general speak the latter, which is indeed their natural language, for they are not the original natives, but the descendants of the natives, who settled themselves more or less upon this whole western coast, after having been expelled from their native country. The king and his court, with a great number of the principal people, are also the descendants of the Arabs, and not only speak their language, but also strictly profess the Mahometan religion; but the original natives are permitted to retain their antient customs, as also their religious maxims, the latter of which nearly resemble those practised by other African idolaters.

The only place of any note in this kingdom, and which is the metropolis of it, is called Sofala: it is pleasantly situated on a small island at the mouth of the river Cuama. Before the Portuguese visited this part of the coast, it was a very inconsiderable town, neither large nor walled, but fenced only with a thorny hedge; since their arrival, however, it has been greatly improved, and is now a very large and populous place. The Portuguese have also built a strong fortress here, which is of infinite service to them, as it secures their ships in the harbour when they stop here in their passage to and from India. Both the fortress and island are tributary to the king of Portugal. The articles the Portuguese purchase of the natives, are, gold, ambergris, slaves and elephants teeth; in exchange for which they supply the natives with silks, stuffs, cotton, glass beads, and other such trinkets.

There are two other towns on the coast, near the town of Sofala, one of which is called Harlema, and the other Dardema; there are also several villages, but they do not merit particular description, being inconsiderable places.

A great number of soldiers is kept by the king: these are all paid in gold dust, each according to his rank. Since the arrival of the Portuguese, they have been taught the use of fire-arms, of which they are very fond, and exercise them with great dexterity; but their original weapons were bows and arrows, the scymetar, javelin, dagger, and hatchet.

This country is frequently resorted to by the inhabitants of Quiloa, Mombaza, and Melinda, who come thither in small boats called tambues, with stuffs of blue and white cottons, silk stuffs, yellow and red ambergris, which they exchange with the people here for gold and ivory; and these again sell them to the inhabitants of Monomotapa, who give them gold in return, without weighing it, so that the profit of the exchange is very considerable. This is the reason that when the Monomotapans come to purchase these articles, as soon as the Sofalans perceive their vessels at sea, they light fires on the shore, to testify their joy, and bid them welcome.

The gold mines of this kingdom are said to yield about two millions of metigals per annum, each metigal amounting to fourteen livres; that the ships from Zidem and Mecca carry off above two millions a year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mosambique, whose office lasts but three years, has above three hundred thousand crowns revenue, without including the soldiers pay, and the tribute annually paid to the king of Portugal. From hence many learned men have conjectured that this is the Ophir, whither Solomon sent ships every three years from Ezion-geber to fetch gold; Ezion-geber being thought to be Suez, a sea-port on the Red sea. This conjecture is supported by the remains of several stately edifices, which are found in the different parts where the gold mines are situated, and, from their appearance, are supposed to have been originally palaces or castles built by that opulent prince the king of Israel. It may be also confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who translate the word Ophir, 1 Kings ix. 28. into Sophira which has some resemblance to its present name of Sofala. As a farther confirmation of these conjectures, Lopez, in his voyage to India, says, the inhabitants of this country, boast, that they have books to prove that the Israelites sailed every third year to fetch gold from these parts, in the time of Solomon.

Treating of the Republic of BRAVA; and also of the Kingdoms of MAGADOXA, or MAGADOSKA; and the Kingdom of ADEL, or ZEILA, &c. their Situation, Boundaries and Extent, principal Places, Produce, Inhabitants, their Traffic, &c.

THE republic of Brava, is the only one on the whole coast of Africa. It is pleasantly situated on the coast of the same name, being bounded on each side by a river, supposed to be two branches of the great river Quilmanca. Its inland extent is inconsiderable; and the chief thing that renders it remarkable is its capital, which is also called Brava, and situated in one degree north latitude, between the two rivers or branches abovementioned, where it has a tolerably good harbour. It is a large city, and, with the whole republic, was founded by seven Arabian brethren, who fled hither to avoid the impending danger that threatened them from the tyranny of their king, who was one of the petty monarchs of Arabia Felix at that time.

Several strong walls encompass this city, which is otherwise well fortified. The houses are very spacious, and built after the Moreisco stile: they are chiefly inhabited by rich merchants, whose principal traffic consists in gold, silver, elephants teeth, gums and other drugs, particularly ambergris, with which this coast abounds; also cotton and other cloths.

This republic is subject to an aristocratical government, the inhabitants having a right to choose twelve chiefs from among the most antient families, whom they intrust with the administration of justice, and the management of all affairs.

The Mahometan is the prevailing religion of the inhabitants, who pay an annual acknowledgment or tribute to the king of Portugal, and the manner by which this republic became tributary to the Portuguese is thus related:

Tristan de Cugna, admiral of the Portuguese fleet, having set on shore at Melinda three ambassadors, sent by king Emanuel to the emperor of Abyssinia, and recommended them to the care and protection of the king of it, continued his course northward along the coast, till he came to the city of Brava, where he cast anchor, at the port. Here he dispatched, according to the Portuguese custom, one of his officers, named Lionel Codigo, to wait on the heads of the republic, and offer them peace, and the friendship and alliance of the king his master. To this the chiefs answered, that they had no objection to enter into such a treaty; but this answer proved to be only a piece of dissimulation, and calculated to detain the fleet to its destruction, the season being then near at hand, when such boisterous winds usually blow in these parts as would dash to pieces in the harbour all their ships.

This artifice being discovered by Cugna, he resolved immediately to assault the city. Accordingly, before day-break, he drew up his men on the shore, and formed them into two lines, the first whereof consisted of six hundred men, the command whereof he gave to Alphonso Albuquerque, whilst he reserved to himself the command of the others, which consisted of about six hundred soldiers. Brava was at this time garrisoned by four thousand men, half of whom immediately sallied out against them. The conflict was severe on both sides: but the Portuguese charged them with such fury, that they found themselves obliged to give ground, and made a very regular retreat into the city; after which, to prevent the army from following them, they shut all the gates.

Hereupon the place was immediately surrounded by the Portuguese, who examined, with the utmost diligence, where they could best force an entrance; but were all that time terribly annoyed from within by burning torches, and other missile weapons cast at them by the besieged.

Albuquerque, having in the mean time discovered a weak part in the wall, began his attack there, but was quickly opposed by the garrison, who flocked thither with all speed, and defended it with surprising intrepidity. The contest was maintained with great spirit on both sides, when, luckily for Albuquerque, the admiral came up; at whose approach the Moors were struck with such a panic, that they fled with the greatest precipitation, whilst the Portuguese soldiers, eager for their prey, would have pursued them into the city, had not their commanders restrained them.

Soon after this success, the assailants entered the city, and plundered it of a very large and valuable booty, which the Portuguese immediately carried on board their ships.

Great numbers of the besieged were slain and wounded, and many of them taken prisoners: but most of these were soon after released. The Portuguese had about fifty of their men killed, and many dangerously wounded, besides eighteen others who perished in the long boat, which, through their insatiable avarice, they had loaded so immoderately, as to occasion it to overfet. Such too was the inhumanity of the Portuguese sailors, and such their thirst after spoil, that they cut off the arms of seven women, to come the more readily at their rings and bracelets; but Cugna deterred the rest from this barbarity, by severely punishing the perpetrators of this cruelty.

The victors having plundered the city, Cugna ordered it to be set on fire; and it was soon reduced to ashes in sight of the inhabitants, who stood at a small distance, beholding the dismal spectacle. From this catastrophe, they were forced to become tributary to their conquerors; for the Portuguese would not permit them to rebuild their city, or enjoy their ancient privileges, on any other condition than that of paying the king of Portugal an annual acknowledgment, which from that time to the present has been regularly exacted and paid.

The kingdom of Magadoxa, or Magadoska, is situated on the coast of Ajan, and reaches from five degrees forty minutes of north latitude, quite to the equinox, where the river or gulf of Jubo separates the coast of Ajan from that of Zanguebar. It is bounded on the east, by the ocean; on the west, by the kingdom of Alaba; on the north, by the kingdom of Adel; and on the south, by the territories of Brava. It receives its name from the capital; situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, and which river, by reason of its annually overflowing like that of Egypt, is called by the Arabs the Nile of Magadoxa.

The country is likewise well watered by a number of canals that are cut from this river; so that the soil is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of several kinds of grain, as also a variety of excellent fruits; it likewise affords good pasturage, for which reason the natives breed great quantities of cattle, particularly oxen and sheep: they have also numbers of horses, and in the inland parts are various kinds of wild animals, particularly monkeys, baboons, and apes. The rivers also produce several sorts of fish, which the inhabitants catch without any fear, they not being infested with crocodiles, or any other dangerous animals, as in most other parts of Africa.

The natives of this country are of different complexions, some of them being quite black, others of a tawny colour, and some almost white. They are very robust, and of a courageous and warlike disposition. Their weapons are bows and arrows, the latter of which they infect with poison; they use also darts and lances in war.

With respect to the city of Magadoxa, it is tolerably large and well inhabited. Great numbers of merchants resort to it from the kingdom of Adel, Camboya, and other parts, who bring hither stuffs of various sorts, as also drugs and spices; in exchange for which they receive gold, ivory, wax, and other commodities, from the inhabitants.

The Mahometan religion is professed by the king and his court, as also by the chief inhabitants of the city; but those in the interior parts of the country strictly adhere to their heathenish superstitions and maxims, being all of them idolaters.

As to the historical part of this country, we have only to observe, that an hostile attempt was made on its capital by the Portuguese fleet, under the command of admiral Trifran de Cugna, who, as we observed before, took the city of Brava, and reduced it to ashes: their achievements in this place are thus related:

Cugna, after the reduction of the last mentioned city, proceeded as far as Magadoxa, which he caused to be summoned, as usual; to accept of peace and friendship, or, in plainer terms, of subjection, and tributaryship to Portugal. But here he found the inhabitants ready prepared to give him a suitable reception; great numbers of foot were patrolling along the shore, the walls were covered with armed men, and a considerable body of troops were drawn up before the town, which made Codigo, the officer sent with the summons, afraid of going on shore; instead of which, he sent one of the Brava captives to assure the Magadoxans, that the Portuguese came not to denounce war, but to offer peace to them. They, however, knowing what dreadful execution had been made at the city of Brava, fell furiously upon the messenger, and tore him in pieces; they also threatened to serve Codigo in the

same manner, if he offered to land; which obliged him to return to his admiral, and to acquaint him with the insolent menaces of the enemy, and the ill success he had met with.

On receiving this information, Cugna was so enraged, that he determined to bombard and storm the place, but was happily diverted from his design by the persuasion of his officers and pilots.

The former represented to him the natural strength of the place, the number of the garrison, the great plenty of ammunition, and the valour and resolution of the inhabitants: the latter pointed out the extreme danger that must unavoidably arise to the ships, both from the fire of the town, and the violence of the sea, especially as winter was then coming on, and the season for sailing nearly expired; so that if his troops should miscarry in their attempt against the place, their fleet and army must inevitably perish. These reasonable observations induced Cugna to leave the brave Magadoxans in the peaceable enjoyment of their own possessions, and to relinquish all thoughts of prosecuting the design he had so precipitately formed; so that he gave orders for sailing to the island of Socotora, where he soon after arrived with all his ships.

The kingdom of Adel, otherwise called Zeila, is bounded on the east, by part of the eastern ocean; on the west, by the kingdoms of Daneali and Balli; on the north, by the straits of Babelmandel; and, on the south, by the kingdom of Magadoxa. Its full extent on either side is not certainly known; but along the coast, from north to south, it is supposed to reach about seventy-two leagues, and about one hundred and sixty from east to west.

The second name, which is given it, was taken from the capital called Zeila, which is situated to the south east of the mouth of the straits of Babelmandel, near a very spacious and convenient bay. The city is tolerably large, and the streets are regularly formed: the houses are built of stone and mortar, and are in general very spacious, and divided into convenient apartments. The soil round the city is very barren, and so distressed are they for water, that they are obliged to go many miles to fetch that useful article. At some distance, however, from the city, the country is very fertile, and produces most of the necessaries of life, particularly corn and fruit, which are so plentiful, that the natives have not only a sufficiency for their own consumption, but also export great quantities to the neighbouring countries. They have likewise abundance of excellent cattle, especially oxen, sheep, and hogs; and in the woods are plenty of various sorts of game. Besides these, the country also produces gold, ivory, frankincense, and pepper, which the natives sell to the merchants of Arabia and Camboya, who come hither with cloths, amber, necklaces, glass beads, dates, raisins, and other commodities.

The people who inhabit the northern coast of this kingdom are of a tawny complexion, but to the south are quite black. Both sexes are strong and well made, and have naturally good constitutions. They go almost naked, having only a loose piece of cloth hanging from the waist to the knees; but they are very fond of ornaments, especially the women, who decorate their arms, necks, and ankles with circles made of glass and amber beads. The king and nobility are distinguished in their dress from the commonalty by having a kind of loose garment, which covers the whole body from the shoulders to the ankles, and wearing caps on their heads.

These people are naturally of a warlike disposition, and are frequently at enmity with those who inhabited the remote parts of Abyssinia, as well out of zeal for religion, as in hopes of plunder: the former being all staunch Mahometans, and the latter a pusillanimous sort of Christians, no ways equal to them either in valour, discipline, or warlike weapons. The arms of these people consist chiefly of bows and arrows, lances, and javelins, all wretchedly fabricated; and the ordinary sort amongst them have hardly any thing better than long staves, sharp pointed at one end; whereas the Adelites are furnished by the Turks and Arabs, with variety of fire-arms, and other offensive weapons, in exchange for which, they give them slaves, gold dust, and such other articles as they obtain from their neighbours, by plundering them in their excursions.

There are in this kingdom several other large towns besides Zeila, but the only one that merits any notice is called Barbora, situated at the bottom of a convenient bay, on an island of the same name. It hath been continually a kind of rival in commerce with Zeila, and is no less resorted to by foreign merchants, who carry on the same

kind of traffic. It is situate opposite the city of Aden, and was once more considerable than it is at present, being plundered and a great part of it destroyed by the Portuguese fleet under Tristram de Cugna, who expected to have found a considerable spoil in it, but were greatly disappointed, the inhabitants having had time enough to carry off their most valuable effects, and make their escape.

This town is situated on an island, which is very fertile, and produces abundance of different kinds of grain; as also plenty of fruits and cattle, great quantities of which are exported to foreign countries by the merchants.

With respect to the interior parts of the kingdom of Adel, they are chiefly flat, and they have seldom any rains; but this defect is supplied by the number of rivers that water the whole country. Among these, the most considerable is called Hawash, which is very broad and deep, and hardly inferior to the Nile, except in the length of its course; for it does not extend above six miles from its mouth, before it is divided into such a number of canals as to be in some measure exhausted before it reaches the sea. This renders the soil so exceedingly fertile, that it produces great plenty of wheat, barley, and millet, and also feeds prodigious numbers of sheep, cows, and other cattle.

Gold-dust, elephants teeth, frankincense, and slaves, constitute the principal traffic of the natives in these parts of the kingdom; all which they get chiefly from the inhabitants on the borders of Abyssinia, with whom they are continually at war, and miss no opportunities of making inroads into some of their provinces, from whence they seldom return without great quantities of different kinds of plunder. These they convey to the port of Zeila, where they seldom fail of meeting with merchants from Arabia, Camboya,

and other ports, who will readily take them off their hands, and furnish them with cloths of cotton, silk, linen, bracelets, amber, crystal, fire-arms, and other commodities, in exchange.

The eastern part of this coast is a mere sandy and barren tract, producing neither corn, grain, fruit, or any animals except wild ones; for which reason it is generally called the Desert coast. The northern part of it however makes amends; the soil being very fertile, and producing most kinds of provisions, in which the inhabitants carry on a great commerce. It is particularly remarkable for producing an excellent breed of horses, which are chiefly purchased by foreign merchants, for which the natives take silks, cottons, and other commodities, in exchange.

There are great numbers of negroes on the coast, who live and intermarry with the Bedouin Arabs (an idolatrous and superstitious sect amongst those people), and like them, are inveterate enemies to the Abyssinians, on whom they are continually making inroads. They carry on a considerable traffic in gold, slaves, horses, ivory, &c. but they are brutish and arrant thieves, more particularly those who live near the trading coasts.

It is necessary to observe, before we conclude this chapter, that most geographers have, by mistake, included the republic of Brava, with the kingdom of Magadoxa and Adel, under the general name of Ajan, though that is but a term accidentally given by the Portuguese to the whole tract of coast called by that name, which extends itself from the straits of Babel-mandel quite to the utmost verge of Africa on that side, or to the cape called Guardafui; and on the eastern side from the said cape, in the twelfth degree of north latitude, which divides it from the coast of Zanguebar, already described.

C H A P. VI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

ABYSSINIA OR UPPER ETHIOPIA, ABEX, AND NUBIA.

SECT. I.

Containing a General Account of ABYSSINIA; together with a Description of the different Kingdoms and Provinces that now form that extensive Empire.

ABYSSINIA, is situated under the torrid zone, and lies between the eighth and seventeenth degrees of north latitude, and between the thirty-first and fortieth of west longitude from London. It is bounded on the east, by the Red sea, and the coasts of Abex, or Habesh, which have been dismembered from it, and now make a province of the Turkish empire; on the west, by the river Maley, which divides it from Shankala, or the country of the wandering Ethiopians, and falls into the Nile, after it hath run a considerable way into the Nubian dominions; on the north, by the kingdom of Nubia; and, on the south, by Alaba. This country is of a thousand miles extent; and has been known by the different names of Abyssinia, Abassia, and Habessinia, the latter of which is obtained from the Arabic word Habesh, signifying a mixture, or confusion, it being inhabited by people of various nations. The inhabitants, however, reject these names, and call themselves Itjopians, and their country Manghesta Itjopia, or kingdom of Ethiopia; but the diversity of names having heretofore made great confusion, that of Abyssinia at length prevailed, and by this it hath for ages past been universally known.

It may however be proper to say something concerning the title that hath been absurdly given to its monarchs, namely, that of Prestor John, and which seems to have thus originated: in the kingdom of Tenduc, in Tartaria Proper, was an antient race of Christian princes, who bore the title of Prestor, or Presbyter John, as it was corruptly called by the Europeans, though chiefly owing to an epi-

thet which Ung-Chiang, one of the first of those monarchs, either took of Prestigian, or was complimented with by his subjects, that word signifying apostolical or orthodox, but which had by the Europeans been corrupted into Prestor John, on supposition that he was a priest as well as king. The fame of this monarch was become so great, in the time of John II. king of Portugal, when the discovery of India was made, that he sent Peter Covillan by land to make inquiry after him in India; but as he could hear nothing of such a prince there, he (being informed that there was a potent Christian emperor in Africa) took that country in his way home, and was so kindly treated by the reigning monarch, that this was the kingdom so much sought after, though he could find nothing like the title of Prestor John. This point, however, hath produced much controversy among the learned world; some affirming the empire of Abyssinia to be the real Prestor John's country; while others, with much more reason, have treated that notion as absurd and chimerical.

This empire was much more extensive than at present, several of its kingdoms and provinces having been dismembered from it by the incursions of the Gallas, a barbarous people, of whom we shall treat hereafter.

The kingdoms and provinces that at present belong to it are as follow; namely, 1. Tigra, or Tigre; 2. Bagameder, or Bagamedri; 3. Amara, or Amhara; 4. Oleca and Choa; 5. Damota, or Damut; 6. Goyam, or Gojam; 7. Dambea; 8. Narea, or Enarea. We shall describe each of them in the order here set down.

The kingdom of Tigra is the most considerable in the whole empire, and is remarkable for having in it the remains of the city of Axum, which was formerly the residence of the emperors; and though now abandoned by those monarchs, and reduced to a mere village, is still the place whither they repair to be crowned. It is bounded

on the east, by the Red sea, on the west by Dambea, and part of Nubia; on the north, by Barnagafs; and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Angot and Bagameder. Its length, from north to south, is computed to be about three hundred miles, and its breadth about an hundred and sixty.

The city of Axum, which was formerly very opulent, and the capital city of the kingdom, is the chief place of note in it. When in its prosperity, it was a large and well built city, as appears by its few remains; and situated on a spacious and delightful plain, watered by several rivulets, and was adorned with stately palaces, churches, obelisks, arches, &c. There are particularly the ruins of a spacious and magnificent structure, some of the stones of which are of a prodigious length and thickness; one of these, which is still to be seen in the form of a pyramid, is one hundred and four cubits high, on a basis of ten cubits, and raised on a plinth about two feet high. Besides this, there were many other superb buildings, all of which were reduced to a mere heap of ruins during the wars between the Gallas and the Abyssinians; after which, the imperial court being removed, it still farther declined, and has now scarcely two hundred houses left, and they make but a mean appearance. The city is situated about forty English miles from the Red sea; and though the way to it was so rocky and mountainous, that it took up seven days journey, yet it was well supplied from thence with various necessary articles. It was antiently the residence of queen Candace, and even of the famed queen Sheba, if the Abyssinian accounts may be credited.

The town of Madgoga, which is situated on a hill, stands about ten miles south-west of Axum: it was so called originally from the murmuring noise of a neighbouring rivulet; but afterwards received the name of Fremona, from the jesuit missionaries, who had their residence in it, on account of one father Frumenties, the first of their order that came into these parts. This place became more celebrated by the long residence and death of father Andrea de Oviedo, sent thither patriarch of Abyssinia by the pope; after whose death it still continued the residence and seminary of all the missionaries of that order that came into the country (the greatest part of whom lost their lives for the cause they came to establish there, the supremacy of the church and pope of Rome) until their final expulsion out of the whole empire. There are still the remains of a large monastery, that formerly belonged to the jesuits in this town.

A town called Ambacanet is about a day's journey from Madgoga; and a little farther to the southern frontiers is another called Manadela; but they are both insignificant places, and very indifferently inhabited. To the northward of the latter, however, are two of the finest monasteries in the whole empire, both of which were formerly occupied by the jesuit missionaries; the largest of them is called Hallelujah, and the other Abugarina.

The town of Barnagafs is the utmost extent of this kingdom, and reaches to the coast of the Red sea, where it had formerly a famous sea-port called Arquico, which rendered its commerce very considerable. This port, however, was some years ago seized by the Turks, since which Barnagafs has gradually dwindled, and is now become so insignificant as not to merit any farther description.

The kingdom of Angot is situated to the north-east of Tigr: it was one of those wrested from the Abyssinian empire by the Gallas, who broke into it from the southern parts, where they mostly spread themselves up to, or even beyond the line, and made themselves complete masters of it. It hath some few towns in it, viz. Angot, the capital: Dofarzo, said to contain near one thousand houses. Abugana, once famed for having in it a handsome church called Imbre Christos, and for being the capital of a considerable territory of its name. Besides these, there are many others of less note, but they all contain wretched buildings, and no less despicable inhabitants.

Bagameder, or Bagamedri, lies west of Tigr, and extends from it to the Nile. It is about an hundred and eighty miles in length, and sixty in breadth; but the greatest part of it is mountainous, rocky, and inhabited by wild nations. It has some towns, particularly one of its own name, which is the metropolis, but it is an inconsiderable place, and the others are still more unworthy of notice. This province is however divided into thirteen governments, most of which are fertile, and well watered by small rivers.

Amara, or Amhara, lies to the south of the last mentioned province, and on the west is divided by the Nile, which separates it from the province of Gojam. It is

computed to extend about forty leagues from east to west, and has thirty-six districts. This is considered as the most noble province in the empire, from its being the usual residence of the Abyssinian monarchs, and consequently of the chief nobility. It has a peculiar dialect different from all the rest, which is become that of the court, and of the polite throughout the empire. Here stand the rocks of Ambaguexen, where the princes of the blood were formerly confined and educated; and this province is considered as the center of the empire, at this time.

The province of Oleca, lies to the south of Amhara, and is bounded on the east by Angot, and on the west by Gojam, from which it is separated by the Nile. It is a very small province, and has nothing remarkable in any of its towns.

To the south of Oleca, is situated the province of Choa, called also Xoa, and Shewa. It hath part of the country of Marabet on the north, Ifot on the east, and Gojam on the west. It is divided into Upper and Lower Choa, and is the last province on the south side that now acknowledges subjection to the emperor of Abyssinia. The river Sambo, which runs into the Nile, parts it from the north, the Roma on the south-west, and the Yema on the south-east; all which rivers spring from those mountains that stand on the eastern borders.

Korkora, the capital, is almost the only town worthy of notice: it was once the imperial residence, at which time this province flourished superior to any other in the empire. Some remains of the imperial palace are still to be seen; as also those of a church, and a large monastery called Nazareth. Here are also some other towns that have monasteries in them, particularly those called Debra Lebanus, or Mount Lebanos; Menghestra Samajat, or kingdom of Heaven, and some others of less note. The general of the monks usually resided in the monastery at Lebanus.

The kingdom of Damota, or Damut, hath neither cities nor towns, the principal part of it being covered with high mountains; notwithstanding which, it is so well peopled and cultivated, that the inhabitants of it were the first that made an insurrection against the emperor, on account of the Portuguese missionaries, which could not be quelled till they were wholly extirpated by the command of that monarch.

In this kingdom, there is, among others, a lofty hill called the Dead mountain: this is the highest and coldest in all Abyssinia, and the place to which prisoners of state, and such others as the emperor determines to rid himself of, are sent; for here they are soon starved with cold and famine.

The river Maleg hath its spring head under one of the mountains in this kingdom, and, in its course towards the Nile, runs across it.

There were formerly two places of residence for the Jesuits in Damota, from whence they were driven by the inhabitants, in the insurrection abovementioned.

On the other side of the Nile, and farther to the west, is the province of Goyam, or Gojam, which is almost encompassed on every side by that river, except to the north-east, where it is bounded by the Dambean lake. Its length from the north-west to the south-east is somewhat above an hundred and fifty miles, and its breadth from east to west, where it is broadest, is about ninety, it contains twenty districts or governments. This country is fertile, but in the middle is high and mountainous; and these eminences are partly inhabited by a people said to be descended from Hagar, Abraham's Egyptian bond-maid.

The northern parts are altogether mountainous and rocky, and said to be inhabited by Jews; but it is more probable that they are some of the ancient Abyssinians, who have never yet embraced the Christian religion; for though there are great numbers of Jews dispersed through the whole empire, yet that people are never known to prefer desert habitations before the inhabited plains and places of commerce: nor is it probable, that they would reside among the inhospitable rocks, unless we suppose some rich mines lie hid amongst them, which keep them more profitably employed.

There is also, about the neck or isthmus made by the Nile, a very steep and almost inaccessible mountain, on the top of which is an oval plain two hundred and fifty fathom in length, and one hundred and thirty in breadth; to which there are two paths as ascents across the rocks, and on one side a spring of excellent water. Farther towards the Nile is another plain separated from this mountain by a natural trench, where there is a kind of camp, in which the viceroy resides.

This

This kingdom has but few towns of note. The chief, and only one worth notice, is that called Nebeffa, in which the empress Helena, governess to the emperor David, erected a magnificent church, which was afterwards destroyed by the Gallas, but rebuilt by the Jesuits, who resided in several parts of the kingdom. Some remains of this church are still to be seen, but no idea of its original grandeur can be traced from them.

The kingdom of Dambea, is bounded on the south by Gojam, from whence it is separated by the Nile, and the lake of its own name; on the north, by Nubia; on the east, by Tigra; and, on the west, by Changalia. Its length from east to west is about ninety miles, and from north to south about thirty-six exclusive of the lake, or seventy including it. It is one of the flattest territories in all Abyssinia, so that it is frequently overflowed, not only by the lake of Dambea, but also the rivers that run through it from the higher lands; and on this account it is intersected almost every where with deep ditches and canals.

There is, on the eastern confines of this kingdom, a remarkable mountain called Dancas, or Dancaton; it is very high, and on the top of it is a spacious and fertile plain, where the emperors formerly resided, with their court and retinue. Here also was an elegant building erected after the European manner, for the residence of the Portuguese patriarch Mendez; a monastery for the Jesuits; a church called Gambianet; and about nine hundred stone huts, or barracks, covered with straw, for the soldiers attending on the emperor. But they have all been totally destroyed many years past.

Another exceeding high mountain stands opposite to this, and is so steep, that the natives used to flee hither for security when attacked by their enemies. On the east side of it is the monastery of St. Eustatius, so called from its first abbot of that name.

There is not a single town in this province; in confirmation of which, Ludolph assures us, that the people here not only prefer the living in scattered villages and hamlets to towns, where houses are contiguous, but likewise own themselves at a loss to conceive how it is possible to live in large or walled towns, and be there supplied with all the necessities of life; such utter strangers are they to those conveniences used for the carrying on of commerce in other countries. This kingdom is divided into fourteen districts, and governed by a viceroy, who has the title of Dambea Cantiba.

The things most worthy of notice here are the following: in the eastern part of the kingdom is a famous monastery called Ganeta Jesu, situated on a low ground, but very pleasant, and being well watered, is exceeding fertile. In the church belonging to this monastery are the monuments of the Abyssinian emperors for ages past. Father Pais, a Portuguese jesuit, was so pleased with this spot, that he built here a church, as also a place for the emperor, after the European manner; but they have been both destroyed long ago.

There is between Ganeta Jesu and the frontiers of Bagmeder, a small but pleasant territory, remarkable for a kind of market or fair kept in it for cattle, to which the inhabitants of most parts of the kingdom resort. This territory was heretofore granted to the patriarch Mendez for his subsistence, and that of his fraternity. It is about nine miles in length from east to west, and about six from north to south.

Contiguous to the kingdom of Dambea is a small barren province called Fatigar. It was formerly a part of the Abyssinian empire, but was dismembered from it by the Gallas, who so ravaged it, that it hath not any thing now worth mentioning, except two high hills, one of which is called the Mountain of the Fever: it is situated near a plain, to which the Europeans have given the name of Market, because most of the merchants of the neighbouring kingdoms resort thither. The other is called the Mountain of the Lake, because there is a lake about nine miles in compass, with several monasteries round it, at the foot of it.

Several other small kingdoms belonging to the Gallas, lie to the west of Fatigar; and on the east and north-east are the rivers Haowach and Machi, which join their streams in the kingdom of Fatigar, and thence take their course through the kingdom of Adel, and the vast territories of the eastern Gallas.

Narea, or Enarea, which is the last kingdom or province worth notice, extends south as far as the sixth degree of longitude, and consequently to the extremity of the empire. It was formerly governed by its own monarchs, who, as well as their subjects, were Pagans; but being conquered about a century ago, they embraced Christianity.

However, a considerable part of the country is still unsubdued, and perhaps unconverted. The whole kingdom is esteemed rich and fertile, and produces a great number of cattle. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with the Caffres, who bring them abundance of gold, which they exchange for cloth, salt, and other merchandise.

The Nareans are allowed by the Abyssinians themselves to be the best and handsomest people in all Ethiopia. They are tall, strong, and well shaped; and in their dealings honest, wise, faithful, and undisguised. They are also brave and warlike, and have always defended their country with great gallantry against the incursions of the wild and barbarous Gallas, who have subdued even half of the Abyssinian empire. The tribute they pay to the emperor of Abyssinia, appears rather to proceed from their loyalty than any force; for they receive no assistance from him against those common invaders, nor does he maintain any standing forces, garrisons, or fortresses, to keep them in awe. This kingdom is said by some authors to abound in gold; but that is probably owing to the great quantity of that metal brought into it by the neighbouring Caffres, unless it be supposed that they designedly conceal and forbear seeking for it, lest the fame of their wealth should induce the Turks, or the plundering Gallas, to invade them, for the sake of plunder.

The Gallas having obtained so considerable a part of the empire, it may not be improper to give some account of them. These people, who are also called Galli and Balli, are commonly distinguished according to their situation with respect to Abyssinia, into eastern, western, and southern. They are a bold warlike people, who live by the sword, and consider that as giving the best title to every thing, and as being the surest means of preserving what they have acquired. They are brought up to arms from their infancy, and are early taught to love glory and conquest, and to despise slavery and death. Their youth are not allowed the privilege of cutting their hair, which they esteem the badge of manhood, till they have killed an enemy or some savage beast. The greater number of brave actions a man has performed, the more he is respected; and this gives them the precedence at councils and at festivals, on which account they save the heads of those enemies that fall by their hands as the most valuable trophies. After an engagement they lay them before the proper officers on the field of battle, where they are registered in favour of the persons by whom they are brought: after which the owner may carry them to his own tent, together with his share of the plunder, which is adjudged to him according to the share he had in the victory, and the courage he displayed.

The bow and arrow, and the dart, when they fight at a distance, are their common weapons. Those of high rank close in upon the enemy with their swords, and the rest have a club with one end hardened in the fire. Their shields are chiefly made of the hide of a bull or buffalo. They had formerly no cavalry, but have since learned to fight on horseback; and though their horses are but indifferent, yet they fight so close, and in such good order, that the Abyssinians, though much better mounted, cannot bear the shock. It is even a capital crime among them to give way after the onset is begun: hence they all fight to conquer or die, neither giving nor asking quarter; rushing with such fury on the foe, that it is very difficult to make head against them; whence they have gained many signal victories over Abyssinian armies that have been much more numerous, and provided with better horses and arms. Whenever therefore the Gallas make incursions into the territory of an enemy, instead of trusting to numbers, they commonly choose a select body of determined youths, not exceeding eight or ten thousand at the most, who being all sworn to stand by each other to the last, fight with such intrepidity as seldom fails of putting into disorder an enemy of twice or three times their number.

Agriculture they consider as a slavish employment; and though they admire the bread they take from the Abyssinians' and other neighbours, are generally above sowing corn; and if they do, leave that work to their slaves and women, while they follow what they esteem the more manly exercises of war and hunting. They, however, feed numerous herds of cattle, and live chiefly upon their milk, and such productions of the earth as the country affords, shifting from place to place for the sake of pasture, always taking with them their families and cattle. They give a political reason for their indolence, which is, that if their lands produced plenty of corn, the Abyssinians, and other enemies, might be tempted to invade them, and reap the fruit

fruit of their labour; and if any neighbouring states make incursions on their territories, they immediately retire to some remote parts, with their wives, children, and cattle, in the latter of which consists their principal wealth; so that the enemy, finding the country thus barren, are obliged either to return, or perish for want of subsistence.

The Gallas, are said to be divided into above sixty tribes, each of which has a particular head or prince; and these chuse from among themselves a luva, or luba, who presides over all the rest, but whose authority extends only to military affairs, and is confined to eight years. This octennial chief convenes the grand council, in which the affairs of peace and war are determined; and if they agree upon the latter, he heads the army as commander in chief, distributing to each of the heads of the tribes his proper province and duty; and when the war or expedition is over, he assigns to each man his proper honours and rewards, according to his merit: but if any dispute or matter of complaint arises, it is adjudged by the national council, who alone have a power to confirm, alter, or abrogate the sentence or decree which the luva has pronounced.

That we may enable the reader to form an idea of the mock dignity preserved by these chiefs, as well as the singular method in which they treat those who request audience of them, we shall relate the following particulars, as given by father Lobo, who had an opportunity of seeing the whole: "Being, says he, obliged to pay my respects to the luva, or chief, in order to discover a new way into Abyssinia, I found him with all his wives and flocks about him; the place where he received me being a hut thatched with straw, but somewhat larger than those of his subjects. He appeared with all the seeming consequence of an eastern monarch, and his attendants paid him the most reverential respect. His manner of giving audience to strangers is somewhat singular: he appears seated in the middle of the apartment, with all his courtiers about him, sitting against the wall, each with a goad, or staff, or club in his hand, longer or shorter, according to his rank; the longer are the more dignified. As soon as the stranger enters the place, all these courtiers fall foul of him, and bastinado him till he has regained the door, and got hold of it with his hand; upon which they return to their seats, and he is complimented as if nothing of this kind had happened. I myself, says he, did not fare one jot better, notwithstanding the peaceable and friendly offices that had passed between us; and when I asked the meaning of so strange a ceremony, I was answered, that it was to make those that came among them sensible of the valour and bravery of their nation above all others, and how reasonable it is that they should behave submissively to such a people."

Notwithstanding the Gallas are naturally cruel and barbarous, yet they are not without some good qualities: they are honest and true to their promise, and are never known to violate an oath. They consider this as most solemn of all engagements; the ceremony of which is thus performed: they bring a sheep to a proper place appointed, where they anoint it with butter; after which the persons (or, if it be taken in the name of a tribe or family, the heads of it) lay their hands upon the head of the sheep, and solemnly protest, that they will religiously observe every part of their engagement. The explanation they give of this ceremony is, that the sheep is, in some sense, the mother of all that swear, and the butter is an emblem of the mutual love of the mother and her children; and, consequently, that when a man hath taken an oath upon the head of his mother, he ought never to violate it.

As to their religion, they acknowledge one supreme Being, as governor of all sublunary things, but have not any mode of worship, being extremely ignorant of every thing relating to religion. When the Romish missionaries were here, many of them embraced Christianity, to which for some time they strictly adhered; but they have laid their religion aside, and followed their original maxims, ever since the expulsion of the jesuits.

SECT. II.

Describing the Mountains, Rivers, Soil, Produce, and Animals of ABYSSINIA: containing also an Account of the Inhabitants, their Persons, Dress, Manners, and Customs, together with their Buildings and Furniture: also their Marriages and Funeral Rites.

ABYSSINIA, is intersected throughout with a great number of prodigious high mountains, between which are such dreadful precipices as must naturally strike

terror into the beholder. Some of them have very large plains on the tops covered with trees and other verdure, and afford springs of excellent water; and some of them are so well cultivated as to produce most of the principal necessities of life.

These stupendous hills, which the natives call Dambas, appear at a distance with a delightful variety of shapes. Some of them resemble pyramids, and others look like towers of various shapes. Some are of an equal square, others as perfectly round as if they had been turned or wrought with the chisel. Some again so deceive the eye, that when you arrive at what you suppose to be the top, you discover it only to be the foot of another, no less difficult to ascend, and equally high and craggy.

That our readers may form a proper idea of one of these strange natural productions, and the great danger and difficulty there is in ascending them, we shall present the reader with an account of that called Guza, situated in the kingdom of Tigra, which travellers who come from the Red sea are obliged to cross, in going to Dambea: when you have gained the top, it opens to your view a handsome spacious plain, in the midst of which stands another mountain of equal height, which you must also go over, after you have sufficiently refreshed yourself on the fertile and delightful top of the Guza. The ascent takes up about half a days journey, and goes winding all the way up; the paths are very narrow, and cut into the side of the solid rock; and all the way you go presents you with a most deep and dreadful precipice, the bottom of which cannot be reached by the naked eye, but only offers a gulf, which at once makes the head giddy, and fills the heart with a continual dread. Should any of the caravans that keep going up and down these steep and narrow roads, chance to meet another in its way, they are in the greatest danger, both man and beast, of being thrown down the precipice, and broken into a thousand pieces before they reach the bottom, unless they take the utmost care in passing by one another. The mules are by far the best for those that ride, because they are the surest footed; but they have an ill faculty with them, that they will always go close to the edge of the precipice, and cannot without great risque be turned to the other side of the road, or be kept to it when they are. What adds still more to the horror of the journey, whether it be up or down the steep declivity, is, that at the bottom of the valley below there commonly runs a swift torrent of water, with a most hideous roar, which being echoed by the adjacent rocks, and often heightened by loud winds; as well as by the continual trampling of the men and beasts upon the rock, increases the horrid din to such a degree, that one cannot possibly hear one's self, much less another speak, though ever so loud, or ever so near the person.

The wished-for summit being however once attained (which is reckoned above three hundred fathoms perpendicular above the plain top of Guza, and the most difficult part of all the way, being only provided by nature with a sort of steps like winding stairs, two or three cubits high, and uncouth, on both sides of the rock), one is made amply amends by the beautiful prospect it at once presents to the view, which is not that of rugged and intersected peaks above, and deep gaping vallies beneath, as might be expected, but of a small, though delightful plain, about two miles in compass, and a musket shot in breadth, and terminated at one end by a new, flat, and upright rock, like the back of a chair, of which this little plain is the seat, so that take the whole mountain together, that of Guza seems to be a kind of pedestal to this; and the latter, which the natives call Lamalmon, represents, in some measure, a chair without arms, the back of which is the upright rock at the end of the plain, which is as perpendicular as if it had been hewn out with a chisel. Along what we may call the seat of this wonderful and supereminent chair, is pleasantly situated a town of the same name, whose inhabitants make a decent livelihood by helping the caravans to load and unload the beasts of burden a good part of the way of the craggy ascent beforementioned, in order to help them to leap from one step to another; so that one would be surprised to see with what facility they make the beasts climb and keep their feet, while they themselves convey their burdens from one stair to another, through every difficult part of this extensive ascent. Thus far the description of this remarkable mountain, as given by the authors of the Universal History.

In this country, there are other mountains of much the same nature as the above, particularly one situated between the kingdoms of Amhara and Oleca. But the most considerable of them all is that called by the natives Thabat Mariam, or more properly Tadbaba Mar-jam, whose sum-

mit greatly exceeds all the rest, and is at the same time very spacious. This remarkable mountain, whose bottom is watered by two large rivers descending from it, hath on its summit seven handsome churches, one of which dedicated to St. John, is exceeding beautiful, having been formerly the burial place of the Abyssinian emperors: within side are at this time five monuments erected to the memory of those monarchs: the arms of Portugal are represented on them, and they are covered with tapestry.

In the kingdom of Gojam there is a remarkable hollow and high rock: directly opposite to which, at a small distance, is another much at the same height and bulk, so exactly placed by nature, that it echoes back a word barely whispered in the former with amazing force; and the joint voices of three or four persons speaking together, produces a sound not inferior to that of a numerous army shouting.

Here are many excellent rivers in this country: the most considerable of which, besides the Nile, which takes its rise here, are the following: 1. The Tacazze, supposed to be the Astabores of Ptolomy; it rises in the kingdom of Angot, and, after many considerable windings, first east, then north, then west, and then north again, discharges itself at length into the Nile: this river, though not so large as that it runs into, is in many places very deep, and abounds with crocodiles and sea-horses, as also that remarkable fish called the torpedo, already described, 2. The Mareb, or Moraba, which comes down from the coasts of Habesh, or Abex, and runs mostly north-west through the kingdom of Tigra and other provinces, and at last falls into the Tacazze. 3. The Maley, which rises in Damut, and, after a course of some score leagues to the westward, turns northward toward Narea, waters Bisamo and Pascala, westward of the Nile, and then disembogues itself into the White river. 4. The Bahr el Abiad, or White river, which springs in Bisamo, receives the Maley, and surrounds the kingdom of Changara on the west, dividing it from those of Gorham and Gagoa, and falls into the Nile about sixty leagues below Nubia. 5. The Zebee, which rises in the kingdom of Narea, and is little inferior to the Nile: it takes its course first westward, then eastward, and after that southward; when it surrounds in some measure the kingdom of Gingiro into a peninsula, as the Nile doth that of Gojam; after which, it continues its course southward, and at last empties itself into the Indian ocean. 6. The Howash, or Haowache, which runs through the kingdoms of Gan, Fatagar, Bally, &c. and loses itself at last in the sandy desert in the kingdom of Adel. This river makes ample amends to the inhabitants for the want of rains, which seldom fall in this part of the country; and being, like the Nile, drawn into numerous channels, enrich all that tract, by watering their fields, and fertilizing their vallies; so that they produce most of the articles necessary for the preservation and subsistence of the inhabitants, particularly plenty of corn and cattle.

In this country, besides the above, are great numbers of smaller rivers, the chief of which fall at length into the Nile, and the rest into the Indian sea. The people cut canals from these rivers, to water their lands, which in some parts are made so rich and fertile, that they yield annually two or three crops.

Several large lakes are also here, the most considerable of which is that called by the Europeans Dambea, and by the natives Bahr Tzana, or sea of Tzana, from the chief island in it of that name. This lake is situated in the kingdom of Dambea, and is computed to be about thirty leagues in length, twelve in breadth, and one hundred and fifty in compass, exclusive of its deep bar, creeks, and other windings. The country round about it is plain, fertile, and pleasant; and the inside of the lake abounds with a multitude of islands of different sizes, the largest of which are inhabited by Abyssinian monks. About seven or eight of these islands contain the remains of large monasteries, which appear to have been formerly stately edifices; and among the natural productions of them are such fine citron and orange trees as are not to be equalled in any other part of the empire. One of these islands, and the most barren of them all, is called by the natives Dek, and is the place where state prisoners are usually confined.

The Abyssinians sail on this lake in flat-bottomed boats, which they call tancoas; they are not made of wood, but of a kind of rushes that grow on its banks, each of which is about the thickness of a man's arm, and about two yards in length. They call these rushes tambua, the like of which grow also on the banks of the Nile, and are used

for the same purposes. These last are those which the ancients call papyrus, and were serviceable to them not only in making their boats, sails, and other tackle, but also their paper.

This lake is attended with one great inconvenience, which is, that it breeds great numbers of sea horses, which not only endanger the navigation, but destroy the fish, and sometimes make considerable ravages in the land. However, the people that live on its banks make it their business to destroy these animals, not only to secure their corn and other grain from being destroyed by them, but also for the sake of their flesh, of which they are very fond; they likewise cut their skins into long straps, called allongas, which they use to scourge their horses with, instead of whips.

With respect to the climate of this country, we may reasonably suppose, from its situation, that it is exceeding sultry; but the extreme heat is only felt in the vallies or low lands, for the hills, or ridges of mountains (most of which are of a prodigious height, as we have lately observed), enjoy an agreeable coolness; insomuch that there are some parts where the summers are less sultry than in Portugal; and others, where the inhabitants are more afraid of cold than heat. This difference of climate is, however, frequently productive of violent storms of thunder and lightning, which are sometimes so terrible as to be very destructive both to man and beast. These storms are also generally attended with excessive rains, which are frequently so violent, that their streams carry away with them trees, houses, and even hills, whilst all the rivers overflow, and lay the country under water; and after the water retires, the lands and roads are so covered with a thick slimy mud, that they become for some time intirely impassable. But the greatest inconvenience that attends these rains, is, that they infect the air with a dangerous malignancy; for, falling on a ground that hath lain dry and almost parched up for a considerable time, they naturally raise such vast quantities of unwholesome vapours, as seldom fail to produce some violent distempers, from which even those are seldom excepted, who remain altogether at home.

They have properly speaking, three seasons here; namely, the spring, which begins at the latter end of September; the summer, which commences on the 25th of December; and the winter, which begins on the 25th of June. They divide the summer into two parts, of three months each; the first of which they call Tzadai, and is the most sultry and disagreeable; and the other, which is much more moderate and pleasant, they call Hagai.

The winds also of this country differ, as well as the climates: some especially on the high lands and lofty mountains, are very refreshing and pleasant; while others on the low lands, where the air is less agitated, are hot and very unhealthy. They are subject to one in particular, which is rather a hurricane, and is called in their language sengo, or serpent. This is sometimes so violent, that it overturns houses, tears up trees by the roots, and is frequently very prejudicial to the shipping. But notwithstanding these inconveniencies, this wind has some good property, as it clears the air of the lower grounds, which would otherwise stagnate, and prove infectious not only to men, but to other creatures in general.

The lands in Abyssinia are some of them so fertile as to yield two or three harvests of very good millet, barley, and wheat. They have no rye, instead of which they make use of a small grain called teff, which is of much the same taste and flavour, and yields very good nourishment. It is smaller than our poppy seed, and a little oblong; but at the same time the people in general live very poorly, and even natively, and their cattle seem to fare much better than they do themselves. As they have no oats, they feed their horses, camels, dromedaries, and other large beasts with barley; for though their low lands produce plenty of grass sufficient to feed a prodigious number of cattle, yet they never make any hay, which is here the more necessary, as it must be frequently scorched up by the heat of the sun, and even when it is most plentiful, it is liable to be destroyed by the vast flights of locusts, with which they are sometimes infested, which cover the surface of the earth, and soon devour every blade of grass, besides other vegetables.

A constant verdure is said to crown the trees of this country, and if the inhabitants have a scarcity of fruit, it is rather owing to their negligence than to any fault of the soil, which is capable of producing as great a plenty and variety of them as any country in Africa. They cultivate the black grape, peaches, four pomegranates, sugar canes, and some citrons and oranges: they have also several kinds of
figs,

figs, and among others one called enfette, which grows to a prodigious size, and which Ludolph has endeavoured to prove to be the dudaim of Moses, which is rendered mandrakes in our and other translations.

Here are not only the same variety of medicinal and odoriferous plants, herbs, and roots that are to be met with in Europe, and which also grow without cultivation, but many more unknown to us. The country produces great quantities of fenna, and there are plains, covered with cardamums, and a kind of ginger that has a most agreeable scent, and is four times as large as that of India. To these we may add the allaso, which has such an effect, that it stupifies the serpents and venomous reptiles that approach it, and its root is a certain cure for those who are bitten by those creatures. Here are also great numbers of the cotton shrub which produces cotton in great abundance.

During the greatest part of the year, the banks of the rivers are adorned with jasmines, roses, lillies, jonquils, and a prodigious number of flowers unknown in Europe.

This country produces a great variety of both domestic and wild animals: among the former are camels, dromedaries, horses, asses, mules, cows, sheep with great tails, and goats, which are bred in vast numbers, they being the principal wealth of the inhabitants. Their fat oxen are said to be of so monstrous a size, that at a distance they have been mistaken for elephants: whence it has been said that horned elephants were common in Abyssinia, and these horns travellers have represented as being so large, that one of them will contain above ten quarts of liquor, and say they are used by the people instead of pitchers and other vessels to carry wine, milk, or other liquids. But besides these large oxen, which are fatted for slaughter, they have an ordinary sort designed for labour and carriage, whose horns are said to be so soft and flexible, that they hang down like a dead weight from their heads.

Here is a very fine breed of horses, which, like those of Europe, are of various colours, but the black are the most numerous, and in the greatest esteem. These are only used for war and for travelling. In long journies they make use of mules, which are commonly very gentle, sure footed, and fit for the craggy mountains; they have a quick easy pace, and in travelling are commonly preferred by the Abyssinians to their best horses.

They have here, among the animals of the camel kind, the camelopardus, which is said to be much taller than an elephant, but as slenderly made as that is clumsy and unwieldy; its fore legs are represented as of an amazing length, and though the hinder are somewhat shorter, its belly is so far from the ground, that a tall man may easily pass under it without stooping. The neck is of a proportionable length to enable it to reach the ground, and feed upon the grass, which is the food it chiefly lives on.

Elephants are here extremely numerous, and none were ever known to be brought up tame in this empire. They make dreadful havock among the corn and other grain, much more being destroyed by trampling it down, than by what they eat.

The zebra is one of the most beautiful animals in this country, it is of the shape and size of a mule, but more sleek and slender; it is here curiously marked with white, black, grey, and yellow streaks across the back from the neck to the tail. This animal is not, however, very common, since it is so much admired as to be thought a present of sufficient value to be offered to the monarch. We have already described this creature more at large.

Lyons, tygers, panthers, leopards, wolves, monkeys, foxes, wild cats, civet cats, hares, rabbits, squirrels, and a variety of other animals, abound in this country.

Travellers who have visited Abyssinia mention a very extraordinary animal, which is probably one of the many species of monkeys. They represent it no bigger than a cat; but as having the face of a man, with a mournful voice. It lives upon the trees, where they say it is brought forth, and dies; but it is so very wild, that there is no possibility of taming it; for when any of them have been caught in order to bring them up, all the care that can be taken of them will not prevent their pining themselves to death.

This place is stocked with a great variety of the feathered kind, both wild and tame, many of which are found in Europe; but those here excel several of ours in beauty and size, particularly their partridges, which are said to be as large as our capons; they have several kinds of them, as also of pigeons and turtle-doves. Among the birds which seem in a manner peculiar to this country is the maroc, or honey-bird, so called from its particular instinct in

discovering the hidden treasures of the industrious bees, which they feed upon.

The largest and most unwieldy of all the feathered race, namely, the ostrich, is common, not only here, but in the greatest part of Africa. In this country are also the pipi, so named from its constantly uttering those two syllables, and it is said to direct huntsmen to their game, when it feeds on the blood of the beast killed by its direction. The cardinal is so called by the Portuguese from the beautiful redness of its feathers, except those on its breast, which resemble the finest black velvet; and the white nightingale is a beautiful bird that has a tail two spans in length.

A multitude of obnoxious animals infest these parts, particularly serpents and insects; many of the former are extremely venomous, and their bite attended with almost instant death, if an effectual remedy be not immediately applied. But none of these are capable of doing an hundredth part of the mischief produced by the locusts, which sometimes appear in such thick clouds as to eclipse the light of the sun, and to lay whole provinces desolate by their ravages.

The crocodile and hippopotamus, or river horse, are the largest and most destructive of their amphibious animals. It is not easy to conceive how this animal came to be called a horse, to which it has scarce any resemblance: Its body is like that of an ox, but is twice as big as that of a bull; its legs are short, and resemble those of a bear, it having large round feet, with four claws in each; its tail is like that of an elephant, and it has no more hair on its body than there is upon that animal. In the lower jaw it has four large teeth, two of them crooked like the two tusks of a wild boar, and the other straight, but standing forwards, and all of them as thick as the horns of an ox. Its eyes and ears are small considering its bulk; but it has a wide mouth, great open nostrils, and an upper lip like a lion's, on which grows a bristly beard. He spends the day commonly in the water, and the night on the land, when he feeds on the grass, which is his principal food; his teeth, on account of their not being subject to turn yellow, are esteemed more valuable than ivory.

The rivers and lakes abound with a variety of fish, among which is the torpedo, whose peculiar benumbing quality, on being touched by the finger while alive, we have already given an ample account of.

With respect to their persons, the Abyssinians are generally tall and well-shaped; their complexions may be called black, but some of them are inclined to the tawny, and to a reddish brown. Among them, the olive is reckoned the finest complexion, and next to that the jet black, but the reddish, and particularly the yellowish brown, is esteemed the most disagreeable. They have regular and agreeable features, and their eyes are black, brisk, and lively: their noses are not flat, nor their lips protuberant, as among the natives of Guiney.

These people are stout and strong, brisk and healthy; and their labour, together with the temperance they use in eating, prolong their lives to a good old age. Most of them are so nimble and active, as to climb up the tallest trees, or steepest rocks, with surprising ease and agility. The women greatly exceed those of Europe and Asia in strength and sprightliness; they breed easy, are delivered without help, and can take care both of the child and themselves, without the assistance of a nurse. Indeed, except where they are weakened by a sedentary life, this strength of constitution is common to all the women in these hot climates.

The men of quality wear a long vest, either of fine silk or cotton, tied about the middle with a rich scarf; that of the citizens is much the same, but of cotton only, they not being allowed to wear silk, neither is their cotton of the same fineness. The common people have only a pair of cotton drawers, and a kind of scarf, with which they loosely cover the rest of their bodies; and, till about a century ago, this was the general dress of all the people, none but the emperor, the royal family, and some distinguished favourites, being allowed to wear any other; and this scarf, or a piece of cloth, serves then to wrap themselves in at night.

The habit of the women is allowed to be as fine and genteel as their circumstances will admit; for they are far from being kept in so reclusive a manner as those among the more eastern nations. Those of high rank usually dress in the richest silks and brocades, their upper garments are wide and full, not unlike surplices: they adorn their heads and hair an hundred different ways, and take care to have the richest pendants in their ears; besides they spare no expence in adorning their necks with the most

most costly ornaments of chains, jewels, and other decorations.

The natives of both sexes are extremely curious about the management of their hair, on which they lavish a great deal of butter, to render it smooth and shining. This vanity is perhaps the more excusable, as none but the emperor is allowed to wear either cap or other covering for their head, which, as they have a great deal of idle time upon their hands, is an inducement to them to bestow some part of it in this amusement. Indeed their hair not being apt to grow thick and long, but mostly thin and frizly, some additional art seems necessary to keep it in tolerable order, so as to distinguish each sex; and therefore while the men take much pains in braiding it up in various forms, the women strive to have it hang loose in a variety of curls and ringlets, except the foretop, which according to their rank, they take still greater pains to adorn with jewels and trinkets.

Their dress, upon the whole, is chiefly accommodated to the climate. The heat is so excessive, that they can hardly suffer any cloaths to touch the flesh; which makes them contrive, during the heat of summer, to have them as light, and to hang as loose as possible. Hence the cloth that covers their bodies is thrown loosely over them, their breeches likewise, and the women's drawers, are made wide and long; but in the cooler seasons they bring them much closer to their bodies, and the rich then appear in handsome vests, open only to the waist, and closed with small buttons; these have small collars, and very long and strait sleeves gathered in at the wrist. Some authors have mistaken them for shirts; though according to the season and their circumstances, they wear another light garment under them, next to the skin, made of thin taffety, satin, or damask.

The Abyssinians are not so temperate in their drinking as in their food, especially at their feasts, where after a full meal they usually drink to excess: agreeable to one of their proverbs, "Plant first, and then water." Their liquors are rendered more tempting than their meat. As they have plenty of honey, their mead is excellent; they have likewise some other liquors made of various fruits, and a third sort made of barley without hops. These excesses are attended with no ill consequences, for they live peaceably, and seldom quarrel among themselves; or if they do, their contests seldom go farther than exchanging a few blows; and in matters of consequence, they generally decide the controversy by umpires chosen amongst themselves, or lay the affair before the ruler of the place. Here they are allowed to plead their own cause without the help of a lawyer: and when judgment is given, whether by the judge or the arbitrator, they without the least grudge, murmur, or appeal, submissively acquiesce in it.

The men and women are said in general to be witty and ingenious; but those of the kingdom of Nerea are deemed to exceed the rest in sense, bravery, generosity, affability, and other social virtues. They are extremely inquisitive and fond of learning; yet the people of Tigra, and the neighbouring kingdoms are represented as being for the most part perfidious, cruel, revengeful, haughty, and inconsistent.

Though there is but little learning found among the Abyssinians, that defect is rather for want of proper means, than of capacity to attain it, for they are naturally docile and fond of knowledge, which is acknowledged to have been one of the principal motives that induced them to give the jesuit missionaries so kind a reception at their first coming amongst them.

An intire negligence appears here respecting the symmetry and architecture of their buildings; which is owing to their living in huts or camps, after the manner of their monarchs: so that except a few old royal palaces, here are neither public structures nor private buildings worthy of notice to be seen throughout the whole empire; for those they stile houses would hardly deserve the name of huts among us, they being built of clay and lathes put together in the meanest and most slovenly manner, so as to be easily raised, and as readily abandoned, when they think proper to shift their quarters. These buildings belong to the inferior sort, who follow the royal camp, and being unable to purchase tents, erect these huts with almost as little trouble as a large tent would require in rearing. The very emperors themselves had neither castles nor palaces till the Portuguese missionaries came among them, but lived in their stately pavilions, where all their nobles, guards, and other retinue attended them.

At the time abovementioned, these people were not only such strangers to all kinds of stately edifices, but even to

common regular buildings, that when father Pays undertook to build a magnificent edifice for sultan Segaud, none of that prince's subjects knew so much as how to dig the stones out of the quarries, much less how to square or work them fit for use. He was therefore obliged to teach them both that, and how to make the proper tools for the masons, carpenters, joiners, and in short, for every part of the work; and also how to join the stones, which was performed with a red clay of so glutinous a nature, that it makes a good strong cement, without the help of quicklime. The people were filled with amazement, at beholding not only a large stupendous structure, erected with much strength and regularity, but even high and stately stories raised one upon another, for which they had not even a proper word, but stiled them *babeth-laibeth*, or house upon house; such was their ignorance of the nature of buildings in general.

They have chiefly round tables, which among the rich are large enough for twelve or fourteen persons to sit round them; but they are very low, as the people, like the inhabitants of most of the countries in the east, sit upon carpets, and the meaner sort on the ground, or on mats. Their furniture even among those of high rank, is mean: they have no fine paintings, tapestry, or other ornaments; and indeed, their way of living is in some measure incompatible with any such finery. Even their best beds are no better than couches, on which they lie upon hides and soft furs, wrapped in their upper garments. Indeed, some of their princes and persons of wealth purchase Indian quilts, with silk borders, which now come to them from the ports on the Red sea: and these they spread upon their couches, chiefly in their outward apartments, that they may be seen by those who come to visit them. But the poor mostly lie on mats, or a hide or two spread on the ground, which serve them instead of a bed.

Here are neither inns, taverns, nor caravanseras for the entertainment of strangers. These are rendered unnecessary, by that spirit of hospitality which prevails amongst them. If a traveller stays longer in a village or camp than three hours, the whole community are ready to lodge and furnish him with proper necessaries for himself, his servants, and cattle, at the public expence. He need only enter the first hut or tent he likes, and reveal his wants to the master of it, who immediately goes and informs the chief person of the place; upon which an ox is ordered to be killed, and so much of it is sent to him as will be sufficient for him and his company; together with a proper quantity of bread, liquor, and conveniences for lodging. They are the more careful to supply him with all these, being liable to a fine of double the value of what they are bound to furnish him with, should he prefer a complaint, in case of their neglect, to a proper magistrate. However, this laudable custom is attended with great inconveniences, as it gives encouragement to a number of idle vagabonds to abuse it, and become burdensome to others.

Manufacturers are not numerous among them; and though they are chiefly dressed in linen and cotton, and their country is as proper for producing them as any in Africa, they are so indolent, that they raise no more than will just serve their present wants; and the less of either serves them, as they make no use of any at their tables or for their beds, and a small quantity is sufficient to serve the common people as a covering for their bodies. The Jews are said to be their only weavers, as they are in most parts of the empire their only smiths, and work in all kinds of metal.

What joiners, carpenters, and masons are produced in this country may be easily guessed, from the meanness of their buildings and furniture; and the same may be said of other trades, as taylor, shoemakers, &c. from the plainness of their dress. Indeed the potters, and makers of horn-trumpets and drinking cups are in the highest esteem. These and other inferior artists are incorporated into tribes or companies, and have their several quarters, neither intermingling nor intermarrying with the rest, the children commonly following their parents business.

Gold and silver smiths, jewellers, and other curious artificers of the like kind, are altogether unknown to them, unless by some of their works being brought by way of traffic or exchange, and these are only to be found among the great and opulent. The same may be said of their carpets, tapestry, silk, brocades, velvets, and other costly stuffs, which the Turks bring hither, by the way of the Red sea, and exchange for gold dust, emeralds, and fine horses. The Jews, Armenians, and Arabians are the common brokers between them and the Abyssinians, who seldom or ever travel out of their own country, or indeed are suffered to do so by the Turks, who, being possessed of

all the sea ports on the Red sea, enrich themselves by this monopoly; and are extremely careful to prevent any trade from being opened into the country by any other nation, or of its being carried on by any other hands but those of their own nation.

The Turks, besides the above articles, bring them several kinds of spices, in very small quantities, which they keep up at so high a price, that none but the richest of the Abyssinians can purchase them; in return for these, the Abyssinians bring them ivory, honey, wax, skins, furs, and leather in great quantities, for which they are obliged to take what the brokers please to give.

We must not omit, that in Abyssinia the people have no idea of money; but in purchasing what they want, exchange one commodity for another. The most common article of trade exchanged by them is salt, by which they rate the value of every thing else; and which in general answers the purposes of money, by being exchanged for such necessities and conveniences of life, as they have occasion for.

Among the Abyssinians, marriage is little more than a firm bargain, or contract, by which both parties engage to cohabit and join their stock as long as they like each other; after which they are at liberty to part. The custom of meeting and blessing the married couple at the church door, is doubtless derived from the Jews; and it is said that none but priests and deacons are married within the body of the church. In this part of the matrimonial service several ceremonies are performed.

Alvarez, who was present when the abuna, or patriarch, officiated at one of these marriages, says, that the bridegroom and bride were waiting at the church door, where a kind of bed or couch had been prepared for them, and on which the patriarch ordered them to sit; he then, with a cross in one hand, and a censer in the other, made a kind of procession round them; and then laying his hands on their heads, told them, that as they were become one flesh, so they ought to have but one heart and one will. This was followed by a short exhortation suitable to the occasion; after which he went into the church, and celebrated divine service, at which they both assisted; that being ended, he gave them his blessing, which renders the marriage valid, and then dismissed them. The more religious sort not only attend divine service, but receive the holy communion, either just before or after their being joined. What festivities and rejoicings attended these nuptials, we are not told. The husband and wife, after consummation, keep separate tables; or, if they agree to eat together, each bring their own provisions ready dressed, or send them in before by their slaves or attendants.

Married women are permitted to appear abroad, and to visit their friends and relations; and the princesses of the royal blood have still greater privileges, and are said to think no gallantries, however injurious to their honour, ought to be denied them by their husbands; in which liberties they are so far upheld by their own relations, that all complaints against them will not only be in vain, but also give offence.

However, this is far from being the case of those of inferior rank, who are generally obedient and faithful to their husbands. These are commonly obliged, especially among the meaner sort, to perform some of the most laborious offices of the family, and particularly to grind all the corn used in it, which the very slaves of the other sex will refuse to do: for as they have only hand-mills, they are forced to grind corn either for bread or drink every day, as they want it.

Marriage between persons in the second, third, and even the fourth degree of consanguinity, is forbidden, and therefore they esteem it unlawful to have more than one wife at a time; yet many amongst them are said to have a plurality of wives; these are indeed deprived by the church of the benefit of the holy communion; but they are, notwithstanding, suffered to live with their wives without molestation, inasmuch as polygamy is not deemed by the state detrimental to society.

We have already intimated, that they admit of divorces, not only for breach of conjugal fidelity, but for want of children, by reason of disagreement, bodily infirmities, and the like; in all which cases, the woman has the same privilege of abrogating the marriage contract as the man. In such cases, the dissatisfied party applies to the bishop, and having obtained the desired divorce, which is seldom denied, if the party cannot be prevailed on to withdraw the suit, they next petition for a licence to contract a fresh marriage, which they very easily obtain.

By these indulgences, frequent divorces happen, especially among those of high rank. But with respect to the

grand motive, the breach of fidelity on either side, they frequently compromise the affair; for as both the husband and wife have their separate lands, goods, and chattels, they can make what is esteemed a suitable compensation for the transgression. But where such a compensation cannot be agreed on between the injurer and the injured, the woman is usually the most severely punished: she is condemned to lose all her goods, and to leave her husband's house in a mean ragged dress, and never to enter it more; carrying with her a sewing-needle, by which she may earn her livelihood; and sometimes she is sentenced to lose her head of hair, which is her chief ornament, and to be close shaved, except a single lock on her fore-top. But the husband, if he pleases, may take her again; or, if he does not, they may both marry. If the husband be the offender, he is also liable to be punished, as well as the partner in his guilt; but a fine is generally laid upon them both, and appropriated to the use of the wife. Thus likewise the man who has debauched the wife, if convicted, is sentenced to pay a fine of forty cows, horses, suits of cloaths, &c. and if unable, he becomes the prisoner of the husband, till the debt be paid. If the injured husband suffers him to go, he obliges him to swear, that it is to fetch what will satisfy him; upon which the guilty person sends him a piece of beef and some liquor, after which they sometimes eat and drink together; and then, upon his asking pardon, the husband first remits one part of the fine, and then another, till at length the offender obtains a full acquittal.

They have but few ceremonies in the interment of their dead; as soon as the person has expired, and the body is washed, they perfume it with incense, sprinkle it with holy water, and wrapping it in a sheet, place it on a bier. The bearers then take it, and hurry it away with such swiftness, that those who attend can hardly keep pace with them. When they come to the church or church-yard, (for they bury in either), they again incense it, and throw plenty of holy water upon it. After the priest has read the fourteen first verses of the gospel of St. John, they shoot the corpse into the ground, instead of letting it down gently; the priest repeating the service, and the grave is immediately filled up.

The relations bewail their dead many days; their lamentations begin early in the morning, and continue till the evening; the parents, relations, and friends, meet at the grave, together with women mourners, hired to accompany the solemnity with their outcries, all clapping their hands, smiting their breasts, and uttering the most affecting expressions in a doleful tone.

The funerals of the emperors and grandees are performed with great pomp and magnificence, and are accompanied with all the insignia of their dignity, such as the horse, shield, lance, and other accoutrements of the deceased; which are brought to the place; offerings are made to the church and the clergy, and provisions given liberally to the poor. This ceremony continues, according to the quality of the person, from three to forty days, and is repeated afresh on the anniversary; and, during the mournful solemnity, they all pray to God to be merciful to the soul of the deceased person. But they use neither torches, nor any other lights, either in the church, or in the procession.

S E C T. V.

Treating of the Power, Grandeur, and Titles of the Emperor of ABYSSINIA; his Camp, Marriage, and Revenues, great Officers, Forces, Manner of trying Causes, Laws, Punishments, &c.

IT is universally allowed, that the Abyssinian government hath, from its first foundation, been intirely despotic; and according to their annals, there never was a period of time, since its first origin, wherein the princes of this empire did not claim an absolute right over the lives, liberty, and fortunes of their subjects, as well as an uncontrollable authority in all ecclesiastical affairs; and it is not known that there ever were any written laws to restrain this exorbitant power of the monarchs, or secure the liberty of the subject against his arbitrary mandates.

The emperors of Abyssinia boast their being descended from Menilech, the son of Solomon king of Israel, by the queen of Sheba. According to them, this prince reigned twenty-five years after her return from Judea, and was succeeded by his son, from whom descended a series of princes in a direct line down to the year 960, when the

crown passed into another family, but was afterwards restored to it again. Hence the emperor still retains the pompous titles of the Beloved of God, Son of the Pillar of Sion, Kinsman to the race of Judah, Son of David and Solomon, and Emperor of the Great and High Ethiopia, its kingdoms and provinces, &c. They likewise bear in their arms the lion of the tribe of Judah, holding a cross, with this inscription in Ethiopic, "The lion of the tribe of Judah is conqueror."

This monarch has a degree of respect paid to him by his subjects which amounts almost to adoration: those who are admitted into his presence fall prostrate before him, and kiss the earth as they approach his person; and it is said, that even in his absence they never hear his name mentioned without bowing very low, and touching the ground with their hand. The other marks of grandeur chiefly consist in the retinue with which he is attended; for he is not only attended by his own household and guards, which are very numerous, but by all the grandees and officers of the empire, who strive to outvie each other in the number, richness, and splendor of their retinue, in the elegance of their dress, and the magnificence of their pavilions.

We have already observed, that they chiefly live in tents; the emperor's camp always takes up a large space of ground, and makes a very splendid appearance, to which the regular disposition of the streets, and great variety of tents, streamers, and other ornaments, and especially the many lights and fires at night, do not a little contribute; so that the whole appears like a vast open and regular city, in whose center, or on some eminent part of it, stands the imperial pavilion, which eclipses all the rest in grandeur, bulk, and height. Near to it are those of the empresses, and royal family, and then those of the officers of the court, all appearing with proportionable, though inferior lustre; to these may be added those large and stately pavilions which serve as churches, upon which they bestow no small expence, in adorning them both within and without. In short, the imperial camp is of a vast extent, and yet good order is commonly observed in it. It has markets, courts of justice, and places where young persons of rank perform a variety of exercises on horseback. But all the rest resembles only a great number of long extensive lanes, of mean ordinary taste, or low miserable huts of lath and clay, covered with straw, which serve the emperor's guards and common soldiers, besides a prodigious number of sutlers, who supply them with all necessaries.

If either through the want of wood, or provisions, in the different wars in which the emperor is engaged, it becomes necessary for him to remove his camp, the chief care is to choose a convenient and spacious spot, well furnished with water, and especially with wood, of which they make such havock, that vast forests are frequently laid bare in a short time, and they are amazed, and think it incredible, that such great cities as are in other parts of the world, should be able, without being in extreme want of wood, to subsist so long a time in one place.

When the emperor is on his march, whether in time of peace or war, he is always attended by his chief ministers; he appears with a crown on his head made of pure gold, with silver lilies, intermixed with pearls, and fixed on a cap of blue velvet, on the top of which is a gold cross. Some time before he begins his march, officers are sent to the governors of every province and place through which he is to pass, with orders to clear and repair the roads, and open the woods through which his way lies, by cutting down branches of trees, the briars, and every thing else that may retard the march; and to provide necessaries both for him and the whole army, which travels but slowly, and by short journies, on account of the multitude of women, children, and cattle, which follow the camp.

At the time appointed, all the governors punctually come in with their quotas of corn, cattle, beer, and other liquors, all which are distributed, with the utmost exactness, among the several ranks and orders of the army. In these marches the *titmerari*, an officer who commands the van-guard, fixes his pike on the spot he chooses for the imperial pavilion; after which, every one of the rest knowing his own rank, and the ground he is to take up, easily guesses by his eye where the tents are to be pitched: so that the whole encampment is soon completed with surprising readiness, and in so exact and regular a manner, that notwithstanding their being so frequently removed, every one knows the ways and paths so well, that he can go to the tent of any one with the same facility as he can to his own, or as we can find a street, lane, or house in any of our cities, and towns.

They always divide the camp into seven parishes, each of which has its minister, deacons, and inferior officers, who assist in the instruction of youth, in performing divine service, and the other functions of the minister's office. Whenever an enemy is near, the army is ordered to march close and in the best order, the van-guard and rear drawing up close to the main body, the wings spread themselves out, and the emperor keeps in the center with his guards, great officers, and ladies, a sufficient interval being left for inclosing the baggage. At other times little order is observed in their marches, only there is always a number of warlike instruments sounding before, and a particular guard marching round the emperor. He generally mounts and alights in his tent; but if he has occasion to dismount by the way, the guards immediately make a ring about his person, spreading their cloaths to keep him unseen; and if he dismounts in order to take rest, a couch, which is commonly carried for that purpose, is brought him, on which he lies on cushions covered with the finest silk carpets.

Though the crown of Abyssinia is hereditary, and must be preserved in the same family; yet the emperor, if he pleases, may choose any one of his children whom he thinks most worthy to succeed him. This probably gave birth to the severe custom, formerly observed in this empire, of confining all the princes of the blood to the fortress, or rock, called *Ambaguxen*, which some have described as a severe and disagreeable place of confinement, on the summit of a lofty mountain; while others represent it as an earthly paradise, in which these princes enjoyed every blessing except liberty, and were educated in a manner suitable to their birth and descent.

These young princes were brought out of this abode to ascend the throne, in the following manner: after due consultation, and a strict enquiry into the character of the prince, or after the emperor's having declared him his successor, which precluded all such consultations, the viceroy of Tigrā went at the head of some forces, and encamped at the foot of the mountain, whence, with a proper retinue of grandees and officers, he ascended it, and entering the cell of the prince elect with great formality, fixed the imperial ear-ring to his ear, as a token of his election: and instantly the other young princes were sent for to pay him homage, and congratulate him on his accession to the throne.

The new emperor was no sooner come down from the mountain, than the governors and other officers met him at the head of the army, and all alighting together saluted him. After which, upon his giving them the signal, they mounted again, and taking him into their center, conducted him to the *debana*, or imperial pavilion, with the sound of trumpets, kettle drums, and other musical instruments, intermixed with loud acclamations of joy. Here he alone alighted within, while all the rest did the same without the pavilion. He was soon after solemnly anointed by a prelate, and the rest of the clergy accompanied the ceremony with psalms and hymns suitable to the occasion. Soon after he was invested with the imperial robes, and the crown set upon his head. The sword of state was then drawn and put into his hand, and he being seated on the throne, an herald proclaimed him emperor, and was suddenly answered by the loud acclamations of the whole assembly and army, who came to pay him their homage.

Upon these occasions a kind of ritual, which perhaps contained the duty of a good sovereign, was read and explained before him, either by the metropolitan, by whom he was anointed, or by some of his substitutes. From thence the new sovereign went and assisted at divine service, and received the holy communion; after which he returned, accompanied by his court and army, to the royal tent, through the joyful acclamations of the people, with the sound of musical instruments; and the solemnity was closed with feasting, and other tokens of joy, by all ranks of people.

It is usual for the Abyssinian monarchs, like their ancient progenitor Solomon, king of the Jews, to allow themselves a plurality of wives; and not only imitate him in that, but in taking those of different religions, even Mahometans and Gentiles; and some have carried this so far as to allow their heathen wives to have their own temples and idols; so that on one side might be seen the church of God, and on the other a Pagan temple. Others, however, have had so much regard to their religion, as to cause those Pagan or Mahometan ladies to be instructed and baptized before they married them. The generality of these princes, however, choose to marry the daughters of noble families among their subjects; while others, less attentive

attentive to their noble extraction, pay a greater regard to the natural endowments of the mind, or the beauty of the person.

No sooner has the monarch pitched upon a young lady for his wife, than she is taken from her parents, and lodged with some of his relations, in order to obtain a better knowledge of her good qualities. If he is satisfied with her, he takes her with him to church, and having both received the holy communion, they are conducted to the imperial pavilion, attended by the whole court in the richest attire; and there the abuna, or chief prelate, commonly performs the matrimonial ceremony; which being ended, the emperor, as at other times, dines by himself in his own apartment, and she in her's, in company with a number of other ladies. The nobles and clergymen are treated at other tables in separate tents, with a variety of meats and liquors; and the feast generally continues among the male guests till all the liquor is drank, after which every one retires to rest.

The Abyssinian emperors used frequently never to appear in public, and they were seldom known to trouble themselves with the affairs of government, the care of which was committed to two ministers, called babluded, or favourites; but this custom has been long abolished, and they shew themselves to their subjects at least three or four times a year, though none is allowed to see them eat, except the pages who feed them; (for both they and all the great have their meat cut into bits, and conveyed to their mouths by young pages): and when they give audience to public ambassadors, they always sit behind the curtain, concealed from the public view.

The imperial revenues seem to be very inconsiderable, and chiefly arise from the four following branches: the first is the tribute paid by the governors of such provinces and kingdoms as abound with gold, which amounts to no more than about five or six thousand ounces per annum, one year with another. The next arises from the sale of all the great offices of the empire, and the yearly tribute they pay him. The third branch consists of a tenth of all the cattle in the empire. By this last (which it appears was unknown till about the middle of the third century) every man that hath cows, is obliged to pay him one out of ten every third year, and the country breeding vast quantities of them, makes it by far the most considerable branch: this is called the burning or branding tax, because the emperor's officers brand those with a particular mark which they set aside for his use. The fourth and last branch arises from a duty laid on every loom of cotton cloth. If it belongs to a Christian, he pays one piece of cloth; and if to a Mahometan, a piece of eight per annum. By this duty are gathered in the kingdom of Dambea, and parts adjacent, about one thousand of these pieces, and in that of Gojam three thousand; besides about two hundred bissets, which are a thicker and stronger cloth, and all shagged on one side. The like tax is gathered in all the other kingdoms and provinces throughout the empire, and the annual amount of it is very considerable.

We shall now, as we proposed, give an account of the great officers and forces of the empire; beginning with the chief officer belonging to the emperor, who is stiled rath, or principal, and is generalissimo of all the forces; he has under him two great officers, one of whom is called bellatinoche goyta, that is, lord of the servants, and is a kind of high steward; his power extends not only over the azagues and umbares, or civil judges of the empire, but over all the viceroys, governors, and generals of the army. The other officer is stiled tahah, that is, lord of the lesser servants: he is only a kind of under steward to the king's household, which is generally composed of persons of inferior rank. These have in a good measure the management of the empire, and the regulation of the army, which is indeed far from being answerable to the extent of the country, as they seldom exceed forty thousand men, of whom between four and five thousand are cavalry, and the rest foot.

With respect to their cavalry, about fifteen hundred of them are well sized, and properly mounted; but the rest are indifferently armed and accoutred, having no other arms but spears and a buckler. The spears are of two sorts, the one like our half pikes, and the other resembles a halbert or partizan. The staves of the former are slender, and the iron narrow like our pike, but the iron of the other is broad and thin; the first is to be darted at the enemy, and the last to be used in close fight with one hand, while the other holds a buckler made of a buffalo's hide, which is usually very thick and strong.

The foot soldiers have each of them two spears; and

those of a higher rank have likewise swords, which they seldom use in battle, but rather wear them as a mark of distinction, and in time of peace commonly hold them in their hands when in conversation; but if they walk, their servants carry them under the arm. They have the hilt of gold, or silver gilt, and the scabbard of velvet or rich damask, which is commonly red; these weapons are chiefly worn by way of ornament. They likewise wear a kind of dagger under their girdle, and some also carry a club of some hard, heavy wood, with a dagger in it. This weapon they commonly use by darting at the enemy when they come to a close engagement.

Their soldiers are but little acquainted with fire arms, and as poorly furnished with powder and ball. The Abyssinians have not above one thousand five hundred muskets, and there are not more than three or four hundred musketeers in any action, who are generally so ill trained to the use of arms, that they never fire above once, for want of powder and ball. These they seldom have at their exercises, except a few of the higher rank, who with their muskets use a rest.

Their cavalry are all said to be very good horsemen, and are all armed much like the foot: they mount and sit their horses extremely well: but in other respects, are very ill-disciplined, like the foot.

The Abyssinians generally draw up their armies with little regularity, so that the first shock frequently begins and ends the battle, one side turning their back, and the other pursuing; for it is so common to run from the enemy, that it is not considered as any disgrace; and they never endeavour to rally their troops, or indeed know how to go about it. This behaviour is entirely owing to their want of discipline, for they are commonly hardy, and enured to hunger, thirst, and fatigue, to which they are trained up from their youth; and as they continue in the field the greatest part of the year, they are equally capable of bearing the most excessive heat, the sharpest cold, and the most violent rains, with very little for their sustenance; and even this they procure by their labour from the lands the emperor allows to those in his service. Another disadvantage is, their taking their wives and children with them, and these are generally so numerous, that a camp of thirty thousand men always consists of above an hundred thousand persons, all of whom are obliged to live on the produce of lands assigned for their maintenance. They have also a vast number of priests, who not only perform the divine service in pavilions, but escort and attend the sacred utensils with great pomp and ceremony, and with vocal and instrumental music. The army is also attended by drums and kettle drums, larger and louder than ours; besides trumpets, hautboys, flutes, and other instruments.

The viceroys and governors of provinces, as well as the military commanders and civil magistrates, hold their several courts of judicature, in which all causes, whether civil or criminal, are decided; only those of the martial kind have martial officers, who preside in them, and the others are tried by civil judges, who alone are allowed to sit, while the plaintiff, defendant, and the rest of the company stand. These, upon proper occasions, will even sit upon the ground in the highway or open field, and try a cause brought before them, when every one who pleases may be present. They make use of no writing, nor keep any records, nor do they allow of attornies and councils to plead on the merits of the cause; but both the plaintiff and defendant plead their own cause, the former speaking first, and the latter after him: each may answer and reply three or four times by turns; after which the judge, commanding silence, asks the opinion of the by-standers, and then pronounces sentence upon the spot.

In criminal cases, if the accused be cast, he is either kept prisoner by the judge till he has made satisfaction to the accuser, or if the crime be capital, as in the case of murder, he is delivered up to the plaintiff, to be punished at his discretion, and that of the relations of the deceased, who either sell the murderer, or put him to death in what manner they please. But when a murder cannot be sufficiently proved against any man, all the inhabitants of the place where it was committed are severely fined, or suffer some bodily punishment for the crime.

They have three kinds of capital punishments: the first is, burying the criminal quite up to his mouth; then covering his head with thorns and briars, they lay a heavy stone upon them. The second is, beating him to death with thick clubs about two feet long; but the most usual method, in cases of murder, is, running the criminal through with their lances, in which case the nearest relation of the deceased makes the first thrust, and the rest follow

follow in due order: even those who come after the criminal has expired, generally dip their weapons in his blood, to shew that they are also concerned to revenge the murder of a relation. But what is still more barbarous, is, the feasting and loud rejoicing made by those relations, from the time the criminal is delivered into their hands, till his execution, and more particularly on the night preceding it, to all which the prisoner himself is a witness. This often exasperates his friends to that degree, that it is not unusual for the death of some of the most zealous prosecutors to follow that of the criminal.

History informs us, that the Abyssinians boast their having received both their kings and the Jewish religion from Solomon. Of this they have an antient record, which gives the following account of this singular event: "That a great and potent queen, named Azeb, or Maqueda, reigning in Ethiopia, being informed by a merchant named Tamerin, of the great power and wisdom of Idoman, travelled to Jerusalem, attended by a retinue of the greatest nobles and princes of Ethiopia, and with immense treasure. There Solomon instructed her in the knowledge of the true God; and upon her return home, at the end of nine months, she was delivered of a son, who was called Menilehech, and also David. This son afterwards going to Jerusalem, to see his father Solomon, was magnificently entertained by him, and anointed king of Ethiopia, by Zadoc, and Joash, the high-priest; and when he was thoroughly instructed in the law of God, which he was to cause to be observed in his dominions, Solomon assigned several of the first-born of Israel to attend and serve him in Ethiopia, and furnished him with officers and servants belonging to the house of Judah, with a high-priest, levites, and doctors in the law of Moses, the Jewish legislator."

Though it must be allowed there is nothing in this account very improbable, yet the same record adds many circumstances that are evidently false; as, that the first-born of Israel, at the instigation of Azariah, the son of Zadoc, went to Jerusalem, and fetched the ark out of the Temple; and, being assisted by a train of miracles, escaped the pursuit of Solomon, and arrived with it in Ethiopia. However, it is not improbable, that the prince of Abyssinia might cause another ark to be made like that formed by Moses, and that this story might be afterwards invented, in order to procure it a more general veneration from the public.

They keep this ark so closely concealed, that even their monarchs are not admitted to the sight of it. Since the Abyssinian emperors have assumed the custom of living in tents, this precious relic is no longer confined to a temple, but always accompanies the royal camp, and is carried about with the greatest form and ceremony, attended by four prelates in their pontifical habits, and about forty or fifty other priests, who chaunt before and after it; while one marching backwards before with a censer in his hand, offers incense to it all the way, till it be deposited in the grand pavilion, which is the church where the imperial court assembles.

These people maintain, that they were converted to Christianity by the eunuch or prime minister of their queen Candace, or, as they call her, Handake, who after his conversion by Philip, they say, returned into Ethiopia, and gave his queen a full account of all that had passed; upon which that princess also believed the gospel. However, in the year 335, Athanasius, patriarch of Alexandria, ordained Frumentius bishop of Axuma, and sent him to preach the gospel in Ethiopia. This he performed with great success; the discipline of the church was then settled conformably to that of Alexandria; priests and deacons were every where ordained; liturgies, articles, and canons were settled and confirmed; and the Abyssinian church was brought to acknowledge herself wholly subject to, and dependent upon that of Alexandria.

It appears, however, that the Abyssinians retain many of the Jewish ceremonies, besides that of attending the ark: so that their religion may be deemed a mixture of Judaism and Christianity. They circumcise not only the male but the female infants, which last is done by cutting off a small piece of skin from the clitoris. They abstain from blood, things strangled, the flesh of swine, and the other animals prohibited by the Mosaic law. They use purifications and washings after certain defilements. They oblige a man if his brother die without male issue, to marry his widow, and raise up seed to his name; and they keep the seventh day sabbath. On the other hand, they believe the doctrine of the Trinity, and that Christ shall come again in glory to judge the quick and the dead, when the just shall inherit the king-

dom of heaven, and unrepenting sinners be sent into the miserable regions of darkness.

The people never enter their churches without pulling off their shoes or sandals. The divine service consists of a set of prayers, psalms, and hymns suitable to the seasons, and for the most part performed with great decency and devotion, without any of that pomp and ceremony used in the church of Rome. They have no bells, but call the people to the church by the sound of wooden hammers, which they strike upon a hollow board; at the hearing of which both the clergy and laity repair thither with a decent gravity, saying some prayers all the way they go; and when there, neither stare about, whisper, nor spit. The priests and laity are separated from each other; the former are in a kind of choir, with a curtain drawn before them, which hinders the people who are in the body of the church, from seeing, though not from hearing the divine service. They have neither pews, benches, nor hallocks, but continue standing all the time. In none of these edifices, whether sumptuous or mean, are any statues or carved images of any kind, except pictures: they will not suffer any crucifixes, whether carved or cast in metal, to be seen in them, or to be worn about the necks of the people. The clergy are allowed to marry.

In baptism, they use a three-fold immersion, if the infant be capable of bearing it; without danger of its life; if not, the three-fold aspersion of water is deemed sufficient. The first immersion is only of one-third of the body, in the name of the Father; the second of two-thirds, or up to the breast, in the name of the Son; and the last of the whole body, by plunging in the head, in the name of the Holy Ghost. They then anoint the whole body, especially the joints, with the holy chrism, and afterwards administer the holy communion to the child in both kinds, by dipping a bit of the consecrated bread into what they call the wine, and applying it to the lips of the child.

There is in every church a small room behind the east end, in which are the materials for making the communion bread, which is a leavened cake, that they consecrate every time they administer the Lord's supper, dividing the whole among the communicants, and having it fresh made every time. Instead of wine, from which they wholly abstain, they keep in this little room a small quantity of dried raisins, which they squeeze and macerate in a greater or lesser quantity of water, according to the number of the communicants; for they administer the cup also to the laity, and receive both the elements as symbols and channels conveying to them the benefits of Christ's death. They do not admit laymen and women to come up to the altar to receive; but administer it to them at the door of the choir; nor do they oblige them to receive it kneeling, but in a standing posture.

The Abyssinian clergy are little versed in the sacred writings, having neither expositors, commentaries, concordances, nor any of those helps which are in use amongst us, except a few homilies upon some select parts of the gospels, or upon a few theological points; but as they never preach or expound them to the laity, it is not surprising that they are extremely ignorant, and in many particulars grossly superstitious. Like the Roman Catholics, they offer up their devotions and prayers to the saints, and have proper offices, fasts, and festivals to their honour. Though they do not believe a purgatory in the same sense as the Greek and Roman churches, nor have any particular office for the dead, yet they make mention of them in their common service, and pray to God to absolve them from their sins, and to make them fit for the joys of heaven. They likewise keep a kind of anniversary of their departure, on which they give alms according to their ability, to the priests, monks, and poor, to pray for the souls of their departed friends.

In this church they receive the same canonical books, both of the Old and New Testament, that we do; the former are translated into Ethiopic from the Greek version, called the Septuagint; and the latter also from the Greek text; they have likewise the Apostolical Constitution, which, in many respects, differs from the work which passes by that name. This they believe to be of divine authority, and to have been written by St. Clement, whose name it bears. They have also the Nicene, but not that called the Apostles Creed.

Like the oriental churches, they observe four lents, viz. the great lent, which lasts fifty days; that of St. Peter and St. Paul, which lasts forty days, more or less, according to the nearness of their Easter; that of the Assumption of our Lady, which continues fifteen days; and that of Advent, which lasts three weeks. In all these lents they abstain from

from eggs, butter, cheese, and neither eat nor drink till after sun-set, which is never later than between six and seven in the evening: and after that time, they may eat and drink till midnight. Instead of butter they use oil, which they extract from a small grain, and is far from having an unpleasant taste. They fast with the same strictness on all the Wednesdays and Fridays throughout the year, and on those days always go to prayers before they begin their evening meals. The very peasants leave their work to have time to perform their duty, before they break their fast. Neither the old nor young, nor even the sick, are excused from fasting, except in some very extraordinary cases.

It may not be improper, before we quit this subject, to take some notice of the different orders of the Abyssinian clergy; the most dignified of which is the abuna, or patriarch, who is wholly subject to that of Alexandria, as all the rest of the clergy are to him. His office is very lucrative; for having no bishops under him, nor any other person to controul him, he disposes of all benefices, which bring him great emolument. He has likewise the sole privilege of ordaining, which also produces a considerable income, few being received into holy orders, without a previous offering to obtain them admittance. Besides these advantages, he has also certain lands assigned him in the kingdoms of Tigra, Gojam and Dambea. The first of these is computed to bring him in forty or fifty ounces of gold per annum; those of Gojam and Dambea afford him a more than sufficient quantity of provision for his tables, the remainder of which he disposes for his own profit. To these may be also added, a kind of public gathering of salt and cloth, which is annually made for him throughout the empire, and amounts to a considerable value, all which put together make a very large income; and the more so, as the emperor has exempted the lands from taxes.

The Debararas are the next order of ecclesiastics; and these are held in great esteem. They are neither priests nor deacons, but a kind of Jewish levites, or chanters, who assist at all public offices of the church, and whose head, or supreme, called *barca guyva*, hath the care and direction of the sacred pavilions in the imperial camp. As these boast themselves of Jewish extraction, they pretend, by the songs, dances, and beating of drums, to imitate the service of the Jewish tabernacle, and temple of Jerusalem, and the dancing of king David before the ark. These debararas always attend on great festivals, when they begin their music and dancing long before day, and, without appearing to be in the least fatigued, continue it till noon.

The next in order are the komos, and in point of dignity follow the abuna. Every parochial church hath one of these, who is a kind of hahamanus, or archipresbyter, and hath all the inferior priests and deacons, as well as the secular affairs of the parish, under his care and government; and as they have no bishops over them, they preside in chief at divine service, distribute the several offices of the inferior clergy, and reconcile their disputes. The office of the inferior priests, is, to supply the place of the komos when absent, and, if present, to assist him in baptizing, marrying, visiting the sick, burying the dead, and other parts of divine service.

The last order of the priesthood are the deacons, who likewise assist in performing religious duties though in a lower sphere than the priests; and both have their proper offices and vestments when they officiate. This order is conferred by the abuna on the emperor, princes, grandees, and even on their children; not that they may have the privilege of officiating as such, but only to assist at the divine service, and to receive the communion in the chancel with the clergy, and be separate from the laity, who stand in the body of the church by themselves.

The abovementioned orders are allowed to marry, even after they have been ordained priests. Their sons also are permitted to succeed them in their ecclesiastical benefices. In general, however, they are all, except the abuna, exceeding poor, insomuch that they are obliged to apply themselves to labour and industry, but chiefly to farming and pasturage; all which renders them less respected than clergy in other countries, especially as they wear no particular dress or other mark of the priestly office, except a small cross, which they carry in their hand, and bless the people with, and a small round cap of any colour, which they wear on their heads. Neither have they the privileges enjoyed by priests of many other countries; for should they commit any thing derogatory to the laws of their country, they are liable to be punished by the lay magistracy, in the same manner as secular persons.

The Abyssinian churches appear for the most part to have been formerly large and elegant structures; but they are now so decayed, that it is impossible to form a proper idea of their original magnificence. The following ones are the most distinguished, and chiefly claim the attention of all the curious: namely, St. Emanuel, St. Saviour, St. Mary, the Holy Cross, St. George, Golgotha, Bethlehem, the Martyrs, Marcorcos, and Lalibela. However incredible it may appear, yet certain it is, that these ten churches were all cut out of a solid rock, by dint of the hammer and chisel. The last of them bears the name of their founder, who, being desirous of having them executed, sent for a number of workmen from Egypt; and so expeditiously was the undertaking carried on, that it is said the whole was completed in twenty-four years: a short time, considering the stately manner in which they are constituted, being proportionable in all their parts, as gates, windows, pillars, arches, channels, &c. and also the number of them.

There are, besides the above churches, many monasteries in Abyssinia, most of which contain two chapels, one for the men, and the other for the women; but how they came to be introduced, and of what order the first founders of them were, is not known. At present there are only two different orders, who are called by the names of their founders, namely those of Taklo Haymanout, and of Alba Euctatius; the former a native of Ethiopia, and the other of Egypt. All the monks belonging to these monasteries live in a very recluse and abstemious manner: their cells are very mean, being built only of clay, and covered with straw, and their furniture within is equally despicable: they lie only upon mats on the floor, and follow every thing that is answerable to a monastic life. To what we have already said concerning their fasts, it may be necessary to add, in this place, that in their work of mortification they are peculiar to themselves, for, instead of those practised by the monks of other countries (which perhaps rather stimulate than damp the fleshly appetites), they plunge themselves into the coldest rivers, and continue in them, with the water up to their chin, for several hours together, and this kind of mortification they practise even in the coldest weather. They have all of them the privilege of carrying a cross in their hands, and blessing the people; those of the abbots or superior orders of convents are distinguished from the rest, by being much larger and better shaped: and when they go abroad, are usually carried before them by some inferior monk, as a token of their dignity. Such as prefer a life of celibacy are much more esteemed than those who marry; and are often, especially their abbots, consulted in matters relative to the welfare of the state, by the emperor himself.

SECTION VI.

Treating of the History of ABYSSINIA, and the Succession of their Monarchs, from the Reign of the Queen of Sheba, to the present Century, comprising a Space of upwards of two thousand seven hundred Years.

THE principal materials relating to the Abyssinian history have been collected by the jesuit missionaries while in this empire. It is less copious and more vague than the histories of most other countries; notwithstanding which, we hope our readers will find some satisfaction in perusing the detached fragments they have transmitted to us. The antient records, from whence they have obtained these accounts, are preserved in the great church at Axum, and are digested in the following order:

The queen of Sheba was the first sovereign of the Abyssinian empire. She came into Judea in or about the year before Christ 992, and of the world 3012. She reigned twenty-five years after her return, and left the crown to

Menilehech, her son, who reigned in conjunction with his father twenty-nine years, and eighteen more with his son Rehoboam: after which he died, and was succeeded by

Sadgur, the son of Menilehech, from whom proceeded, in a lineal descent, twenty-four princes; but the length of their reigns is not recorded, nor any particulars relative to either of them, except that in the eighth year of the last (viz. A. M. 4004.) whom the chronicle calls Phecon, our Saviour was born.

Thirteen emperors reigned from this period to the year 327, whose names, and the length of the time each reigned, are omitted; but it was in the above year that St. Athanasius

nafius sent Frumutius into Ethiopia to convert the Abyssinians to Christianity.

The records, after the above circumstance, furnish us with a remarkable account of three brothers who agreed to reign jointly; their names are, Atzfa, Atzfed, and Amay; and it is said, that in order to prevent discord among them, they projected a very strange expedient, which was, to divide the day into three parts, and to hold the reins alternately, each his third part, or eight hours. This was certainly a most uncommon mode of government, notwithstanding which, if we give credit to the Abyssinian legends, it proved very successful: for if at any time one of the brothers differed or fell out with another, the third was ready to interpose, and act as umpire between the other two.

Several other monarchs succeeded these; but we have not any account of their lives and reigns, only that in the three last of them, whose names were, Arado, Aladoba, and Alamid, great numbers of monks and anchorites came hither from Egypt, with a view of propagating the Christian faith.

Tacena, was succeeded by Alamid, who left the crown to Caleb, in whose time new tribes of monks came from Rum, and settled in the kingdom of Tigra. This was about the year after Christ 521, and the time that Justinian was emperor of Rome. Caleb was sometime at war with the Sabeian or Hamente kingdom; but at length totally subdued it by defeat and death of the Jewish king Dunaan, whose crown he is said to have sent to Jerusalem, to be there suspended in the great church of St. Sepulchre, in memory of his signal success over that distinguished persecutor of those who professed Christianity at that time.

Gabra Mesket, succeeded Caleb. He was a very peaceable prince, and it is said, formed an alliance with the emperor Justinian. His two next successors were Constantine and Fuzena; and after them fifteen more; all the descendants of Solomon. The last of these was named Del-Noad, who reigned till about the year 960, when the succession passed into the Zagean family; at which time the usurpation, which continued for three hundred and forty years, commenced, by the infamy of a woman named Tredda Gabex, who, for her impiety, cruelty, lewdness, and other enormous vices, was otherwise called Escat, or Firebrand.

This woman formed a plan not only to destroy Del-Noad, the then emperor, but also the whole imperial family; and this she concerted in order to raise a son of hers, whom she had by the governor of Bugna, to the Ethiopian throne. So effectually did she succeed in this diabolical plot, that only one of the whole family escaped, who fled for security into the kingdom of Xava, where his posterity were preserved with the utmost privacy by the viceroys of that kingdom, who, during the whole time of the Zagean usurpation, were strongly attached to the line of Solomon.

While the imperial throne was in the hands of the Zagean family, the following are the only princes of whom any notice is taken; namely, Lalibela, Degna Michael, Newaja Ohristos, and Naacu Luabo. The first of these eternized his name by many glorious actions, and particularly distinguished his piety in causing ten churches to be hewn out of a solid rock, for performing divine service, which we have lately described. The last of the above monarchs, was greatly extolled by his subjects, as a peaceable, magnanimous, and beneficent prince, and likewise of a very pious disposition.

We are not certainly informed who the rest were that filled the throne during the Zagean usurpation, neither are we told by what means the crown was restored to the descendants of Solomon; but only that the Zagean family being driven from the throne about the year 1300, Icon Ambac, whose predecessors had been preserved in the kingdom of Xava during the usurpation, recovered the Abyssinian throne; and that it hath continued in the ancient line of Solomon ever since.

The last-mentioned prince held the throne about fifteen years, and is said to have been succeeded by sixteen other princes; but we have no particulars mentioned of either of them till we come to Zaara Jacob, who was the last. This prince began to reign in 1437, and was greatly esteemed as a man of learning and deep penetration.

After the death of Zaara Jacob, which happened in 1465, Boeda Mariam assumed the reins, and, after reigning only ten years, died, and was succeeded by Alexander, who reigned fifteen years and six months, that is from 1475 to 1491.

During the reign of Alexander, Peter Covillan arrived

in the empire of Abyssinia, and was the first Portuguese that ever penetrated so far into the interior part of the country.

Amida Jeygon was the successor of Alexander: he reigned only six months, and then dying without issue male, was succeeded by

Nahod his uncle, and the son of Boeda Mariam, who was confined, at the time of his accession, on the rocks of Amba-Guexen, where he had been placed by the emperor Alexander. He reigned thirteen years and nine months, dying about 1507, was succeeded by Etana Denghel, or Lebna Denghel, who is better known by the names of Onag-Segued and David; which last he took on his accession to the crown.

This prince reigned very peaceably for some years after his accession, but was at length so harrassed by the cruel depredations made on his dominions by his Moorish neighbours, that he applied to the Portuguese for assistance; which gave them an opportunity of enlarging the endeavours they had heretofore made of propagating the Romish religion in the Abyssinian empire. Onag-Segued by the great zeal he shewed for the church of Rome, and the Pope's supremacy, had not only occasioned his subjects in general to hate him, but in particular rendered the whole Abyssinian clergy his most inveterate enemies, and at last brought on those complicated troubles which occasioned his death.

Notwithstanding the assistance offered to this prince by the Portuguese, yet so powerful were his enemies, such devastations had they made by their incursions, and so closely did they follow him, that he was reduced to the necessity of seeking refuge among some of the desert mountains, where he remained for some time; but being at length routed, was obliged to retire to the top of the Damo. Having some of his bravest men with him here, he endeavoured to defend himself for some time, having now little more than the name, much less could he support the dignity of a monarch. However, all his troubles had a period in this fortress; for here, in the year 1540, he yielded up his crown and life, in the forty-second year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign, which he began in 1507: the first twenty years of which had been as happy and prosperous as the last thirteen had proved distracted and unfortunate.

Claudius Segued, or Atgnaf-Segued, son of the former, succeeded to the throne. His reign was but little more tranquil than the latter part of his father's, being harrassed on all sides by the Gallas and Mahometans: and his whole empire must have been totally destroyed, had not the Portuguese interposed to prevent it. However, in the month of March 1559, he lost his life in an engagement with the Gallas, after a tiresome reign of little more than eighteen years. Leaving no male issue, he was succeeded by his brother's son,

Minas, who assumed the name of Adama Segued, at his coronation. This prince reigned only three years, when he was treacherously murdered by his own soldiers, in an engagement against one of the revolted governors of the maritime provinces, in April 1562. He was succeeded by

Melech Segued, a wise and valiant prince, who was blessed with a long, and, for the most part, successful reign, though hardly ever free from war, either against some of his rebellious subjects, or his formidable and inveterate enemies the Gallas and Mahometan Moors. After reigning a little more than thirty-three years he died in 1595; and as he had no sons by his wife, designed a natural one, named Jacob, for his successor; but having changed his mind a short time before his death, he left the crown to

Zedenghel, his brother's son, who, though in other respects a brave and noble prince, yet, on account of his too great fondness for the Romish church, unhappily proved the fatal cause of a most bloody civil war, as many of the grandees took Jacob's part against him. Peter, the then abbot, was the principal leader of this rebellion; and, having absolved the Abyssinians from their oath of allegiance, they took up arms against him, whilst he, with the few forces he had left, and a small number of the Portuguese, venturing to give them battle, was defeated and killed, after he had reigned nine years, in October 1604.

Jacob, on the death of Zedenghel his competitor, obtained the imperial dignity; but had not long enjoyed it, before he found himself strenuously opposed by the great grandson of Etana Danghel, whose name was Suficus, or Socinius, a young prince, no less artful than brave. The contest lasted somewhat longer than two years, when it was decided by an obstinate engagement on the 10th of March

March 1607; in which Jaacob and the abuna Peter lost their lives on the field of battle.

The crown of Abyssinia, then devolving to Sufneus, he immediately manifested his strong attachment to the Roman catholic religion, notwithstanding it had been very prejudicial to several of his predecessors. In consequence of this, he gave such encouragement to the Popish missionaries, that great numbers flocked thither during his reign, who in all probability would have universally established the pope's authority in this country, had not a stop been put to their progress by the unexpected death of that monarch, who took leave of the empire and the world in November 1632, and was succeeded by his son,

Baritides, who assumed the name of Adzam Sagued. He had not long ascended the throne, before he issued a decree against the Roman catholics; and through the whole of his reign, proved as great an enemy to the missionaries, as his father had been a friend and patron to them; inasmuch that before his death, he totally extirpated them from the empire. He died about the year 1664, and was succeeded by his son John, who, on his ascension, took the name of Aclaf Segued. This prince, after reigning peaceably for sixteen years, died suddenly; and was succeeded by his son Jawfo, or Adyan Seguel, who ascended the throne in 1680, and, after reigning upwards of twenty-five years, was dethroned by his son Tahlmenoth, who took possession of the crown in the year 1706, and enjoyed it but a short time; for the people having conceived a universal disgust against him for his perfidy, caused him to be massacred about two years after by his own troops.

Tefilis, the brother of Tahlmenoth, then usurped the throne. His reign, however, was little less permanent than that of his predecessor: his prime minister, named Oultas, the son of a sister of Jawfo Adyan Segued, having dethroned him in the third year of his reign, and seized upon the crown. The Abyssinians, however, would not suffer him to hold the imperial dignity longer than till they could raise another prince, named David, to the throne; but this was not effected till great slaughter had been made by both parties, as appears from accounts received from Mocha, dated June 1718.

David, having obtained intire possession of the throne, enjoyed it without interruption during the remainder of his life; and the revolutions occasioned by his accession were the last of any consequence that have happened in this empire, his successors having from that time to the present regularly assumed the imperial dignity, and quietly enjoyed the honours annexed to it.

Having now given the most interesting particulars we could meet with, relative to the Abyssinian history; we shall, before we conclude our account of this country, give a succinct account of the strenuous attempts the Portuguese have made to establish their religion, the destruction it hath occasioned, and their final extirpation by the natives.

The Portuguese missionaries, resorting to Ethiopia at the latter end of the fifteenth century, when their countrymen found the way round the cape of Good Hope, had almost made good catholics of the Ethiopians, and persuaded their emperor, not only to acknowledge the pope's supremacy, but to admit a patriarch amongst them, sent thither from Rome. The government also consented to abolish their antient rites and ceremonies, and conform entirely to the ritual of the Roman church: but many of the nobility and governors of the provinces, with a majority of the common people, having the greatest abhorrence of the popish religion, rose in arms against their emperor, which occasioned civil wars in Ethiopia, that lasted upwards of one hundred years, wherein many thousands were killed; but the court, with the assistance of the jesuits, European engineers, and some Portuguese troops, were generally victorious over those of the ancient religion, but could never subdue their obstinate perseverance in it; and several provinces revolted entirely from the emperor.

Their emperors, however, continued still to profess the popish religion, and submit to the dictates of Rome; till at length the jesuits, under pretence of maintaining the pope's ecclesiastical supremacy, took upon them to direct almost all secular affairs, treating the prince rather as viceroy to his holiness, than sovereign of the country; and having erected and garrisoned several fortresses, were sending for European forces to maintain their usurped power; which gave such an alarm to the emperor, as well as to the nobility, that it was agreed at once to abolish popery, and restore their ancient religion. The Romish priests were hereupon generally sacrificed to the fury of the people, and their

patriarch very narrowly escaped out of the country, with his life: and when three capuchins afterwards came as far as Squaquena, upon the Red sea, from whence they sent letters to the emperor of Ethiopia, to obtain leave to come into his territories again, that prince requested the Turkish bassia, who commanded on that coast, to suffer no franks to come that way into his territories, and to send him the heads of those Capuchins: which the bassia did not only oblige him in, but sent him their skins flayed off, and stuffed, that he might know them to be franks by their colour, and priests by their shaved crowns.

Thus have the jesuits and fathers of the Romish church procured their superstition to be banished out of almost every country where they have planted it; they have indeed, by their skill in physic and mathematics, and an artful address, insinuated themselves into the courts of many great princes; but then their advancing the pope's supremacy to such an extravagant height, and pretending to controul the government in civil as well as ecclesiastical matters, has ever occasioned their expulsion. Thus it was in Japan, where that emperor, finding them usurping upon the civil authority, ordered every Christian in his dominions to be massacred; and that no Christian should ever set his foot on shore there again. This has also put a stop to their progress in China, and occasioned very severe persecutions of the Christians there; but still they persist in their encroachments on princes where they have an opportunity, and probably will never be satisfied, till they have made his holiness universal monarch in temporals as well as spirituals; or procured their own extirpation, by the general consent of Christian princes, as the knights templars did by their influence in the fourteenth century.

S E C T. VII.

Containing a Description of NUBIA, ABEX, and ANIAN, their Situation, Extent, Climate, Vegetables and Animals; also the Persons, Dress, Customs, and Manners of the Inhabitants; with an Account of the respective Cities in these Empires, and the Articles of their Commerce, &c.

NUBIA, which is also called Sennar, is bounded on the north, by Egypt; on the east, by the Red sea; on the south, by Abyssinia; and on the west, by the kingdoms of Tagua, Caoga, and the desert of Gorham. It is situated between the thirteenth and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude, and between the twenty-fifth and thirty-eighth degrees of east longitude, extending in an irregular oblong square. Its principal rivers are the Nile, the Nubia and the Sira. The Nile overflows here at its usual season, but not so considerably as in Egypt.

This country, though entirely under the torrid zone, is nevertheless in many places very fruitful, especially on the banks of the Nile, where the inhabitants, as in Upper Egypt, raise the water up to the high banks by art and labour. Hence it produces some very fine fruits, with plenty of sugar canes; but the natives are unacquainted with the method of making good sugar. They have also a great variety of medicinal plants, roots, and drugs; with others that are extremely obnoxious, particularly a most dreadful poison, so quick and fatal in its operations, that, it is said, a single seed taken inwardly gives almost instant death. These seeds grow on the top of a plant that resembles our nettles, and it is said that considerable quantities of it are exported to the neighbouring countries. Nubia also affords gold, ivory, sanders, and other medicinal woods, and drugs.

Here are likewise great numbers of dromedaries, camels, horses, and various kinds of wild beasts, as lions, tygers, leopards, crocodiles, vipers, and several kinds of serpents, particularly one of a colour which so nearly resembles that of the dust, or sand, in which it lurks, that it is not easily avoided, and its bite is commonly attended with almost immediate death, and that of the most painful and dreadful nature.

Most of the inhabitants are Mahometans; they are much given to cheating; are a stupid debauched people, and are said to have neither modesty, civility, nor religion. Those that live in villages chiefly apply them to agriculture, except those who inhabit the more desert parts, who live upon plunder. Mr. Norden, who proceeded up the Nile, a considerable way into Nubia, found them base, treacherous, mean, and avaricious; especially some of the great, who scruple neither threats nor entreaties to obtain the treasures of those whom they dare not plunder by open violence and force.

The natives are swarthy, and small of stature. Those of

of superior rank in the heart of the country wear a vest without sleeves; but the common people only wrap a piece of linen cloth about them, and the children go quite naked. However, persons of quality wear fine loose long robes of silk or cotton, and those of the women reach to the ground; these last also adorn their hair with rings and other trinkets, silver, and brads; yet have nothing on their legs or feet but a kind of sandal, or leather sole. As for the women of lower rank, they only wear a short kind of petticoat, from the waist to the knees.

They fight to greater advantage on horseback than on foot, for they are very expert horsemen; but, they poison their weapons, and the Turks seldom care to attack them; they are however almost continually at war with the inhabitants of Gorham, the desert tracts on the south west, or making excursions as far as to the Red Sea, in the eastern parts.

Mr. Poncet, a French physician, who passed through this country, in his way to Ethiopia, says, they are subject to a prince, who wears a long robe, embroidered with gold and silver, fastened with a girdle of the finest cotton. On his head he has a turban of the same, and never appears in public without having his face veiled with a silk gauze of various colours. Strangers, who are permitted to pay their homage to him, are obliged to pull off their shoes, and kneeling, to kiss the ground two or three times; and his subjects always appear barefooted before him.

The same author observes, that the royal palace is a large confused pile of buildings, without any regularity, and surrounded with a high brick wall; it is, however, furnished with every thing esteemed curious, rich, and costly; and the floors, after the manner of the eastern nations, are covered with the finest silk carpets. This prince applies himself five days in the week to affairs of state, and the administration of justice, at which time he sits at the head of his council, and decides causes with the utmost expedition. When sentence of death is passed on the criminal, it is immediately executed by laying him flat on his back, and beating him on the breast with a stick till he expires. It is also said, that on the death of the king the grand council assemble, and have the inhumanity to cause all the brothers of their new sovereign to be put to death. However, the accounts we have both of this country and Abyssinia are not entirely to be depended upon; though the author last mentioned seems to have as much veracity as those writers among the Jesuits, who have described the country of Abyssinia, and have endeavoured with the utmost malignity, to destroy his credit as an historian.

The king of Nubia is a despotic, independent, and powerful prince. Dangala or Dongola, and Sennar, the capital, are the chief cities of Nubia.

Sennar is situated in the fourteenth degree, north latitude, and twenty-ninth degree, east longitude. It stands on the eastern bank of the Nile, and is bounded on the south by Abyssinia, and on the west by Gagoa. It is pleasantly situated on an eminence, between which is a large plain, covered with a great variety of odoriferous fruit trees. It is about five miles in circumference; and so populous, that the inhabitants are estimated at one hundred thousand. The houses in general are low, flat, and ill built; and those in particular without the city are truly wretched, consisting only of poor small huts made of wood and mud. Provisions of all kinds are here very plentiful and cheap; and a market is held every day in the centre of the city for the sale of them. The inhabitants make fine wheaten bread for strangers, but they chuse a coarser sort for their own eating. The inconveniences attending this city are chiefly owing to the air being very unwholesome from the excessive heats, which are also attended with violent rains, so as sometimes to prove fatal to men and beasts from the disorders produced by it.

A considerable trade is carried on here, in all parts, between this city and Dangala, as also from thence down to Cairo, and other parts of Egypt. The commodities they dispose of are gold, musk, elephants teeth, in return for which they receive spices, cottons, silks, and other commodities belonging to India.

Dangala is situated in nineteen degrees, ten minutes, north latitude, and twenty seven-degrees, ten minutes, east longitude. It stands on the eastern banks of the Nile, near the confines of Gagoa, and is about two hundred and fifty miles from Sennar. It is extremely populous, and is said to contain at least ten thousand houses; but they are all insignificant buildings, being very low, and made only of mud and wood, and covered with straw. The inhabi-

tants however are most of them very rich, and carry on a considerable traffic with Cairo, and other parts of Egypt, where they exchange their own commodities, especially sanders and musk, for arms, linen cloth, &c.

There are four principal towns in this kingdom, namely, Cufa, Guola, Jalac, and Sula; but they are all very trifling, neither of them containing any thing worthy of particular description.

Most of the villages, of which there are many, are situated on the banks of the Nile, and other rivers, for the convenience of watering the grounds. These are tolerably pleasant; but the rest, which are in desert parts, are very thinly inhabited, and make but a mean appearance.

The small kingdom of Gorham lies to the south of Nubia; but we know little of it else, than that it is chiefly a desert country, and that the inhabitants of it are generally at war with the Nubians, and other adjoining kingdoms. The people are very rude and ignorant, go about naked, and live chiefly by plunder. There is not a single village in the whole kingdom, or any thing that looks like one, except a few wretched huts situated along the White River, which divides this territory from Abyssinia, and falls into the Nile some leagues below the city of Sennar, otherwise called Nubia.

We must not omit to mention, that the language of the Nubians is peculiar to themselves, but bears some kind of affinity to the Arabic: it is not however universally spoken throughout the whole kingdom, for in the desolate parts, which are inhabited by a different kind of people, they speak a language that does not border either on the one or the other; so that these and the inhabitants of the more civilized parts of the country, can scarcely converse together at all.

The country of Abex, or Habesh, is only a narrow slip of land which extends along the western or African shore of the Red sea, and was formerly a part of Upper Ethiopia, though it is at present subject to the Turks, who seized on all its bays and ports from Egypt to the Straits of Babelmandel, by which means the natives of Abyssinia were excluded from all intercourse with the Red sea.

The air is not only sultry, but foggy and unwholesome, especially after sun-set; and the country is sandy and so parched by the sun, that it is almost barren, and produces few of the necessaries of life. It has however some deer, and also sheep of a prodigious size, with large tails like those we have described in treating of Syria, p. 281; it is also said to abound with a great number of lions, tygers, and other wild animals.

A long chain of inaccessible mountains secure the western part of this tract of land, and prevent the passage of an army from Abyssinia into their country, there being only two narrow passes, that of Suakin and that of Arkico; and even in these passes the road is so rugged and difficult, that there is no travelling above five or six miles a day, and consequently they may be easily defended against a numerous army by a handful of troops.

The natives are a mixture of Turks, Egyptians, Ethiopians, Caffres, and Arabs.

Suaquam and Arkico, or Ercoco, are the chief towns; besides which there is a number of villages of fishermen. Suaquam is built on a small island of its own name, situated in nineteen degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and in thirty-seven degrees thirty minutes east longitude, and is one of the best sea ports in the Red sea; the entrance into the harbour is by a narrow strait that reaches into a lake, in the midst of which is the island on which the town is built. All the houses are of stone and mortar, and here resides a Turkish governor under the basha of Cairo. Turks and Arabs are the principal inhabitants of this city.

The town of Arkico, or Ercoco, is situated in sixteen degrees five minutes north latitude, on the coast of the Red sea, and is defended by a castle; but is small, and neither rich nor populous.

Several petty kingdoms, scarce worthy of notice: one of the principal of these is Dancali, or Dancaly, which extends beyond the straits of Babelmandel. The soil is for the most part dry, sandy, and barren; for the whole country labours under a great scarcity of water, and that which they have is very brackish. The land produces little besides some hardy vegetables that serve to feed the goats, which are in a manner the only quadrupeds in the country. It has some ports in the Red sea, the principal of which is Baliur, and having some salt mines, the produce of them is sent into other countries, and in return they receive the necessaries of life. Their king, though a Mahometan, is said to be tributary to the Abyssinian monarch.

Aniat

Anian extends along the southern coast of the gulf of Babel-mandel to cape Guardafuy, and from the twelfth degree of north latitude to the equator; it being bounded on the north by the gulf of Babel-mandel, on the east by the Indian ocean, on the south by Zanguebar, and by Abyssinia and the unknown parts of Africa on the west.

The climate being exceeding hot, all the eastern coast is a mere sandy barren tract, producing neither corn, fruit, nor any animals, but of the wild kind, on which account it is generally called the Desert coast; but the northern coast, which is washed by the gulf, is a fertile country that produces plenty of provisions, in which the natives carry on a considerable commerce. They have also an excellent breed of horses, which foreign merchants purchase in great numbers, in exchange for silks, cottons, and other commodities.

Along the north coast the inhabitants are for the most part white, with long black hair, and grow more tawny, or even quite black, on proceeding towards the south. Here are likewise many negroes, who live and intermarry with the Arabs settled in the country, and carry on a great commerce with them in slaves, horses, gold and ivory, which they commonly bring from Abyssinia; where they are almost constantly waging war; and, by their frequent inroads into that kingdom, have rendered themselves a warlike people.

Several kingdoms are included in this tract, the most considerable of which is that of Adel, so called from its metropolis, which authors have not described; it is also named Zeila, from another sea-port situated on the southern coast of the Red sea. This kingdom has the straits of Babel-mandel on the north, part of the eastern ocean on the east, and the Gallas with the kingdoms of Dancali and unknown countries on the western part.

Zeila is seated on a spacious bay, to the south-east of the mouth of the straits of Babel-mandel, in eleven degrees ten minutes north latitude, and forty-four degrees thirty-five minutes east longitude from London. This city is extremely populous, the streets are regularly laid out, and the houses built of free-stone. Its haven is very commodious, and it carries on a considerable commerce, it being the place through which the greatest part of the merchandize carried into the Abyssinian empire commonly passes, as well as those that are consumed in the kingdom of Adel.

The soil about Zeila is only a dry barren sand, and the inhabitants are obliged to fetch fresh water at the distance of two days journey from the city, where the country abounds

with corn and fruit to such a degree, that the inhabitants cannot consume it all; on which account, the people of the neighbouring places come thither to purchase provisions, and carry goods in return.

Barbora, the next city, is situated at the bottom of a bay, on an island of its own name. It has been all along a kind of rival in commerce with Zeila, and is no less resorted to by foreign merchants.

The island, which is almost contiguous to the continent, is very fertile, and produces plenty of corn, fruit, and cattle, great part of which is exported into other countries.

The other parts of the kingdom of Adel being generally flat, and with very few hills, they have seldom any rains; but that defect is abundantly supplied by the many rivers that run through the country. One of these rivers named the Hawash, flows down from the Abyssinian mountains, and receiving some other rivers, takes a circuit before it enters the kingdom of Adel. This river is very broad and deep, but it has scarce run six miles through the country of Adel, before the inhabitants divide it into such a multitude of canals, that it is in some measure exhausted before it reaches the sea. This renders the country so rich in grain, fruit, and other provisions, that part of it is conveyed into the neighbouring kingdoms.

They have plenty of wheat, barley, and millet, and a variety of cows, sheep and other beasts; but their principal traffic consists in gold-dust, elephants teeth, frankincense and negro slaves, which the inhabitants of Adel carry to the port of Zeila, where they never fail of meeting with merchants from Arabia, Guzarat, and other parts, who give in exchange for them cloths of cotton, silk, and linen of various sorts, collars, bracelets, and other ornaments of amber and crystal, with dates, raisins, and other articles of merchandize.

The natives are brave and warlike, and fight with surprising intrepidity against the Abyssinians, who are far from being equal to them in valour, discipline, and offensive weapons, the Adelites being furnished by the Turks and Arabs with variety of fire arms.

Their dress consists of a piece of cotton cloth, which covers them only from the girdle to a little below the knee, the rest of their body being naked; but the king and nobles of both sexes wear a kind of loose garment, which covers their whole body, and a cap on their heads: however, all the women are very fond of adorning their necks, arms, wrists, and ancles, with bracelets of brass or amber, and other decorations.

C H A P. VIII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

E G Y P T.

S E C T. I.

Treating of the Name, Situation, and Boundaries, Climate, Divisions, Description of the River Nile, Produce of the Country, &c.

THE name of Egypt, according to the classics, is derived from (Egyptus,) the brother of Danaus, once sovereign of this country. It is called Misraim by the Hebrews and Arabs, which name it is supposed to have obtained from Misraim, the son of Cham, and grandson of Noah. It has also been known by the name of Coptus, the capital city of Upper Egypt, from whence the natives were called Cophtis, as the Christians of Egypt are at this day; and, notwithstanding they are the most numerous, are looked upon to be the true descendants of the antient Egyptians.

The Turks call this country El-kebit, or the overflowed country: and a multitude of other names have been given to it; but by these it has been most generally known.

Egypt is situated on the north-east part of Africa, being bounded by the Mediterranean sea on the north: by the Red sea, and the Isthmus of Suez, which divide it from Asia, towards the east: by the empire of Abyssinia and Nubia towards the south; and by the desert of Barca towards the west. It extends from the twenty-first degree of northern latitude, to the thirty-first and some odd minutes beyond; and consequently must be about six hundred miles in length from south to north; but the breadth in many places does not seem to be near two hundred miles.

The air of this country is not healthful, the situation being very low, and the mud which covers the best part of it after the overflowing of the Nile, sending up a noisome vapour. The sandy deserts also, which enclose Egypt on three sides, render it excessive hot. Nor are there more than two springs in the whole country to refresh the parched inhabitants; so that they seem to be under a necessity of building their towns on the banks of the Nile. Accordingly most of them stand near the river upon rising ground,

so made by art or nature: and when the river overflows, appear like so many islands, which have a communication with each other only by boats. It seldom rains here in the summer; but in the winter, modern travellers assures us, it rains plentifully sometimes, especially in Lower Egypt; notwithstanding it was universally believed formerly, that it never rained here at all; which error, we presume, was occasioned by the relation of some travellers, who had resided but part of the year in Egypt, and had not informed themselves of the different seasons.

This country, as has been observed already, is usually divided into lower, middle, and upper Egypt. Lower Egypt is most part of it contained in a triangular island, made by the Mediterranean sea, and the two great branches of the Nile, which dividing itself five or six miles below Old Cairo, flows one part of it towards the north-west, and falls into the sea at Rossetto, and the other branch towards the north-east, falling into the sea at Damietta, the antient Pelusium: but there is a great extent of country both to the eastward and westward of this triangle, which is included under the name of Lower Egypt. But we shall speak more particularly of these divisions, when we come to describe the chief towns, and the antiquities contained in them.

Dr. Pococke observes, that the soil of Egypt being full of nitre, occasions vapours that render the evening air cold and unhealthful. On the small lakes in the low grounds a cake of salt is left on the surface after the water has evaporated, which they carry away for domestic uses. This nitre, and the sediment of the water of the Nile, renders Egypt so fruitful, that they sometimes find it necessary to temper it with common sand. For within a mile of the mountains the country is sandy, and lies upon an easy ascent, which the Nile never reaches, and on the edge of it are many villages; but where the mountains extend four or five miles from the Nile, there are villages in the midway between them and the river built on eminences raised by art; and these resemble so many islands, from their being surrounded with water, during the flood.

The river Nile or Abanchi, which in the Abyssinian language signifies the father of rivers, hath its sources, as is generally held, in eleven or twelve degrees of northern latitude, in the empire of Abyssinia: but whether the Portuguese jesuits, as is pretended, or any other persons have discovered the very fountains it issues from, is very much questioned, the country where it rises, as some of the natives relate, being covered with vast impenetrable woods. This river runs a course of about fifteen hundred miles from south to north for the most part, and a little below Cairo dividing itself into two branches, one inclining to the east and the other to the west, falls into the Mediterranean, the mouths being about an hundred miles asunder. As for any other branches of this river our modern travellers take no notice of them, and probably those that have been mentioned by antient writers were only canals cut from one of these, particularly the canal which was made to convey the water from the river to Alexandria, seems in our maps to be laid down for one: however, certain it is, there are no other branches navigable at this day than those of Damietta and Rosetto. While the river is contained within the bounds of the ordinary channel, we do not find it is broader at Old Cairo than the Thames at London, and in the driest season of the year is fordable in many places. In the upper part of the stream there are seven cataracts where the water falls in sheets from a very great height, causing a prodigious noise; but through Lower Egypt it slides along with a very gentle stream, and passengers are seldom surprized by tempests on it, as has been observed. The water is very thick and muddy, especially when it is swelled by those heavy rains, which constantly fall within the tropicks in the beginning of the summer, and these are the occasion of its overflowing the low lands in Egypt annually. The antients, who were unacquainted with those latitudes, were much perplexed to discover the true cause of deluge; but at this day every traveller observes, that this is the case of all rivers which have their rise or course within the tropicks; they break their ordinary bounds annually, and overflow the lands for many miles before they reach the sea, particularly in Tonquin, Siam, Bengal, &c. And these also leave a prolifick mud which yields a vast increase, like that which the Nile leaves in Egypt; and though the waters of all these rivers be very thick, when they have stood some time, they are not unwholesome or unpalatable, and some esteem them preferable to spring water, on account of the long course they run in latitudes where the sun has so much influence.

There are great rejoicings annually in Egypt, when the river Nile rises to a certain height, for upon this depends the fruitfulness of the country; and at the cutting of the banks to let it into their canals, from whence it is distributed into their respective fields, is solemnized one of their greatest festivals. The river usually begins to swell in the month of May, and on the 28th of June they publish in Cairo, and other towns, by a crier, how much the water is increased.

One circumstance, however, belongs to this river, which is of a peculiar nature. Other rivers being supplied by rivulets, the ground is lowest near the banks; but as no water flows into the Nile in its passage through Egypt, and as it is necessary that this river should overflow the land, the country of Egypt is generally lower at a distance from the Nile than it is near it; and the land seems, in most parts, to have a gradual descent from the Nile to the foot of the hills, that may be said to begin at those sandy parts already mentioned, as being a mile or two from them, which are never overflowed, since they rise towards the mountains in a gradual ascent.

The cataracts in Upper Egypt, are some of the most remarkable particulars in relation to the Nile. Several authors have visited them; one of whom observes, that, on approaching them, he never saw nature discover so rough a face as appeared in the country. Nothing is to be seen on the east side of the river, but rocks; on the west, the hills are either of sand or black rocks: above to the south, there seems to be a high rocky island; higher up, rocky cliffs appear on each side; and below, to the north, are so many rocks, that little of the water could be seen. The bed of the Nile is crossed by rocks of granite, which in three places, at some distance from each other, divide the stream, and make three falls at each. The first he came to was the least, and appeared not to exceed three feet: the second, which is a little lower down the river, winds round a large rock, or island, forming two streams. This island is about twelve feet high towards the north, and we are told that at high water the Nile runs over it; but supposing the river to be then five feet higher below the rock, the fall will not exceed seven or eight feet. There are other rocks farther to the west; and a third stream, which has a greater fall than any of the rest.

We are not able, however, from this account, to form any idea of these cataracts described by the antients, and even by some of the moderns, who inform us, that under the twenty-third degree of latitude, the water of the Nile issues from several large openings of a high rock into its bed below, falling near two hundred feet with such prodigious noise as to exceed that of the firing of cannon, or the loudest claps of thunder. The water, in its fall, resembles a large white sheet about thirty feet in breadth, which in its rapid descent forms a kind of arch, under which people may walk without being wet; and this seems to have been formerly the amusement of the neighbouring people, there being several niches and seats in the rock for the convenience of sitting down. There are also, under the arch made by the cascade, a kind of platform, and some subterraneous grottos, into which the people used to retire, in order to cool themselves; but these are now become inaccessible by the breaking in of the water from some fresh gaps of the rock. It is also observable, that the water, in its fall below, raises a thick mist, which at a distance resembles a cloud; and yet one who tells us he saw this cataract, affirms, that the natives shoot it with rafts; which circumstance we think very improbable, though it is certainly conformable to Lucan's antient description of it. The learned Dr. Shaw's accounts of the cataracts agree with the descriptions of the judicious Dr. Pococke and Mr. Norden, and seems to discredit every thing that is marvellous in the above relation: for he assures us, that they are only ordinary falls of water, like those we frequently meet with in great rivers, where the stream is a little confined: but (and which seems highly probable) may not the cataracts farther up the Nile be much higher, and more agreeable to the descriptions of the antients, than those visited by these gentlemen?

Those authors, who have given descriptions of Egypt, contented with saying that its fertility is solely to be ascribed to the annual inundation of the Nile, have, by their silence, given occasion to think that Egypt is a paradise on earth, where the people neither plow nor sow, but every thing is produced as it were spontaneously after the draining of the waters: though few lands have more need of cultivation than those of Egypt.

The people have been taught, by necessity, to form various methods of raising the water, where the land lies higher

higher than the inundation rises. This is done at Damietta (where the Nile, when at its height, is not much below the surface of the earth) by means of a wheel made with boxes round its circumference, which receive the water, and as the wheel turns round, the boxes empty themselves at the top into a trough made for that purpose. Where the water is too deep to be raised in this manner, they put a cord round the wheel that reaches down to the water, to the end of which are fastened earthen jars that fill as it goes round, and empty themselves at the top in the same manner as the other; both being turned by oxen. But where the banks are high, the most common way is to make a basin upon them, and fixing in the ground a pole forked at the top, they place another pole by an axle to the top of it. To one end of this last pole they tie a heavy stone, and at the other a rope and a leathern bucket. Two men draw down the bucket into the water, and the weight brings it up, the men directing it, and turning the water into the basin. This basin is frequently made on the side of the bank, and running into another is raised up higher with the same labour; and in Upper Egypt there are sometimes seen five of them, one higher than the other, the uppermost only serving to water the fields. However, in Lower and Middle Egypt, where canals have been dug, they have no occasion for all this labour. The water is conveyed by opening sluices, or breaking down banks, through canals cut for that purpose, into large reservoirs which are made to supply the lower lands as there is occasion for it.

They sometimes also near Cairo use leathern vessels, and an hydraulic machine, called the Persian wheel, to pour water into the canals; and very ingenious methods have been invented to retain the water upon the ground till sufficient humidity is imbibed, and the soil thoroughly soaked. The grand Signor is not intitled to his tribute till the canal is opened at Grand Cairo; and when the bassa opens it, the people refuse to pay tribute, unless the waters are sixteen cubits high.

With respect to the natural history of this country, we must first observe, that Egypt naturally produces few vegetables, most of the tender plants being destroyed by the heat and inundation; but where the Nile has overflowed, and the land is plowed and sown, it yields a great increase. Egypt, which was anciently the granary of the Roman empire, still produces great quantities of wheat, rice, barley, beans, and other kinds of pulse, with which the neighbouring countries are supplied; besides sugar canes, of which some sugar is made; and likewise melons, dates, figs, cucumbers, and other vegetables, which the people eat in hot weather as a cooling food.

Upper Egypt supplies most parts of Europe with fenna; and colocintida grows wild in the sandy grounds: but as Egypt has no common grass, they supply the want of it by sowing the land with clover, without plowing. The spring corn and vegetables are sown in November and December, as soon as the Nile is fallen, and sooner where that river does not naturally overflow the ground. This corn consists of wheat, lentils, and barley that has six rows of grain in one ear; and with this they feed their horses, for they have no oats. They sow beans for their camels, and these the people also eat green both raw and boiled. They have a kind of vetch little inferior to pease, with one large grain in each pod; they also plant an herb called nill, of which they make a kind of indigo blue, resembling that used in Europe.

Most of the trees in Egypt seem to have been transplanted from other countries: for those in their gardens are doubtless exotics, as the cons, or cream-trees, apricots, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, cassia, cotton-tree, and mosch, a delicious fruit.

The papyrus is a production of Egypt, thought not so plentifully as formerly. This reed grew principally on the borders of the Nile, and served the ancients for writing-paper.

The most common trees in Egypt, are, the sount, which bears a key or pod used instead of bark in tanning of leather, the tamarisk, Pharaoh's fig, the sycamore of the ancients, the palm, or date-tree, and is another species of the palm.

Four-footed beasts, are not very numerous here: the cows are large and red, with short horns: the natives make use of their oxen to turn the wheel with which they raise the water, and to plow the land. They have also large buffaloes, which are so impatient of heat, that they will stand in the water with only their noses out to breathe; and when this convenience is not to be had, they will lie wallowing in mud and water all day like swines.

They have a great number of beasts of burden, particularly camels and dromedaries, and the Turks eat the flesh of the young ones as a most delicate dish; but will not permit it to be eaten by the Christians, probably that the breed may not be destroyed. The horses, especially those of Upper Egypt, are very fine ones; but their necks are too short. They never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable; but they cannot perform long journeys, and are only fit to walk in travelling. During the heat of summer, when there is no clover-grass, they are fed with chopped straw and barley. In Cairo all but the great ride on asses, of which they have a fine large breed, and in that city there are said to be no less than forty thousand of them.

Great numbers of antelopes are about Alexandria: they have longer horns, and are more beautiful than those in other countries. The hares and foxes are of a light colour, but the former are not very common. The tyger and the hyena are seldom seen; however they have also some of these here.

Of the birds in Egypt, the ostrich deserves the preference; it is called in Arabic *ter-gimel*, or the camel-bird, because in its head, neck, and walk, it resembles the camel. This bird is common in the mountains south-west of Alexandria; its fat is sold by the Arabs, and used as an ointment for the rheumatism, palsy, and all cold tumours. They have here a kind of large domestic hawk, of a brown colour, with a very fine eye. These frequent the tops of houses, where they may be seen with pigeons standing close by them; but though they are not birds of prey, they eat flesh wherever they find it: the natives never kill them, for they, as well as their ancestors, seem to entertain a veneration both for these birds and for cats. The *ter-chacus*, or messenger bird, would be thought very beautiful were it not so common; it is almost as large as a dove, and is not only finely speckled, but has on the top of its head a tuft of feathers which it spreads when it alights on the ground.

They have also a beautiful white bird, called by the Europeans the field hen; it resembles a stork, but is not half so large, and is seen about the fields like a tame fowl. They have likewise a large white bird with black wings, shaped like a raven; but it is very ugly, and not at all shy: these last are called Pharaoh's hens, and live in the same manner as the tame hawk.

Great numbers of the birds called ibis, are found on the islands in the Nile: these were held in great veneration by the Egyptians, on account of their delivering the country from the multitude of serpents that breed in the ground after the retreat of the Nile. They are of a greyish colour, with the wings and tail black, and resemble the crane.

The stork is held in the highest esteem and veneration by the Mahometans; it being as sacred among them as the ibis was among the Egyptians, and no less profane would that person be accounted, who should attempt to kill, or only hurt or molest it. The great regard paid to these birds was at first, perhaps, less occasioned by the service they are to moist fenny countries, in clearing them of a variety of reptiles and insects, than from the solemn gesticulations they are observed to make whenever they rest upon the ground, or return to their nests: for they first throw their heads backwards, as it were, in a posture of adoration; then strike, as with a pair of castanets, their upper and lower bill together, and afterwards prostrate their necks in a suppliant manner quite down to the ground; constantly repeating the same motions three or four times together.

Here are also great flocks of wild geese of several kinds, wild ducks, woodcocks, snipes, quails, &c. and eagles and vultures are among their birds of prey.

In this country are several sorts of yellow lizards, among which is the worral, which is said to be affected by music; Dr. Shaw says, he has seen several of them keep exact time and motion with the dervises in their circulatory dances, turning when they turned, and stopping when they stopped. This animal, which is of the lizard kind, is four feet long, eight inches broad, and has a forked tongue, which it puts out like a serpent, but it has no teeth, and is harmless, living on lizards and flies. It frequents the grottos and caverns in the mountains on the west of the Nile, and is only found during the hot weather, as it always sleeps during the winter.

There are two species of vipers in Egypt, which are much esteemed in physic; they are of a yellowish colour like the sand in which they live, one with a kind of horns, which have some resemblance to those of snails, but are of a horny substance; and the others like those in Europe.

Few

Few of the fish found in any of the rivers of Europe, except eels and mullets, and no kind of shell-fish, are to be met with in the Nile; and the former, with some others, come only at certain seasons from the sea. Of those most esteemed are the ray, which resembles a carp, but is said to be sometimes two hundred pounds weight. The most delicate fish is the heker, which is only caught in Upper Egypt; it has a long narrow snout, and so small a mouth that one would imagine it could only live by sucking the juice out of the weeds on the ground. Here is a small fish in Upper Egypt called the gurgur, which is about a foot long: its head is armed with a strong bone; the fin on the back, and those on each side under the gills, are also armed with bone. The inhabitants believe that the crocodile is frequently killed by this fish.

Many of the creatures described by the antients are unknown to the modern inhabitants of Egypt, particularly the hippopotamus, or river-horse, which is supposed to be a native of Ethiopia in the upper parts of the Nile; and the crocodile so rarely appears below the first cataracts, that the sight of it is as great an object of curiosity here, as to the Europeans; and though this creature was thought peculiar to Egypt, yet there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both in the form of a lizard; are amphibious animals, which grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs with large feet armed with claws. They have a flat head; their eyes are indifferently large, and their back is covered with scales, of a square form, which, though extremely hard, are not proof against a musket-ball, as some have asserted.

As many ridiculous and marvellous stories have been told concerning the crocodile, some of which have proceeded from travellers taking the most absurd tales upon trust, and others have been the manufacture of their inventive faculties, in order to impose upon the credulous; we shall therefore present our readers with the following description of one that was dissected some years since by the jesuits: "It was eighteen feet and a half in length, of which the tail was five feet and a half, and the head and neck about two feet and a half; the circumference was four feet nine inches in the thickest part; the fore legs had the same parts and make as the arms of a man both within and without; the fore feet had five fingers, the two last of which had no nails, and were of a conical figure; the hinder legs, including the thigh and paw, were two feet two inches long: the paws, from the joint to the extremity of the longest claws, were about nine inches; they were divided into four toes, of which three were armed with large claws, the longest of which was an inch and a half; these toes were united by a membrane, resembling those of a duck, but thicker. The head was long, with a little rising at the top, but the rest was flat, and especially towards the extremity of the jaws; it was covered by a skin adhering firmly to the skull and to the jaws. The skull was rough, and unequal in several places; and about the middle of the forehead there were two long crests, about four inches high; the skull, between these two crests, was impenetrable by a musket-ball, for it only rendered the part it struck against a little white. The eye, in proportion, was very small, and so placed within its orbit, that the external part, when the lid was closed, was only an inch long, and the line running parallel to the opening of the jaws: it was covered with a double lid, one within and one without; that within was folded in the great corner of the eye, and had a motion towards the tail, but being transparent, it covered the eye without hindering the sight. The iris was very large in proportion to the globe of the eye, and was of a yellowish grey colour. Above the eye the ear was placed, which opened from above downwards, as it were by a kind of spring, by means of a solid, thick and cartilaginous substance. The nose was placed in the middle of the upper jaw, near an inch from its extremity, and was perfectly round and flat, being nearly two inches in diameter, of a black, soft, spongy substance, not unlike the nose of a dog. The jaws appeared to shut within each other; and the opinion commonly received is false, that the animal's under jaw is without motion, for it moves like the lower jaw in all other animals; while the upper jaw is fixed to the skull, and absolutely immovable. The animal hath twenty-seven cutting teeth in the upper jaw, and fifteen in the lower, with several void spaces between them; they were thick at the bottom and sharp at the point, being all of different sizes, except ten large hooked ones, six of which were in the lower jaw, and four in the upper. The mouth was fifteen inches long, and eight and a half in the broadest part; the distance of the two jaws, when opened

as wide as they could be, was fifteen inches and an half. The colour of the body was of a dark brown on the upper part, and of a whitish citron below, with large spots of both colours. From the shoulders to the extremity of the tail, it was covered with large square scales, disposed like parallel girdles, and fifty-two in number; but those near the tail were thinner than the rest. The animal was covered not only with these, but all over with a coat of armour, which, however, as we before observed, might be penetrated by a musket-ball. Those parts of the girdle underneath the belly were of a whitish colour, and were made up of scales of divers shapes, which were not so hard as those on the back. The gullet was large when compared to the mouth; and a ball of wood, as large as a man's hand, readily ran down and was drawn up again. The entrails were but short in proportion, being not so long as the animal's body. The tongue (which some have erroneously, from Pliny, asserted this animal is without) consisted of a thick, spongy, soft flesh, and was strongly connected to the lower jaw. The heart was about the size of a calf's, and of a bright red colour, the blood passing as well from the veins to the aorta as into the lungs: there was no bladder, but the kidneys sent the urine to be discharged by the anus. There were sixty two joints in the back-bone, which though very closely connected, had sufficient play to enable the animal to bend like a bow to the right and the left; so that what we are told of escaping a crocodile, by turning out of the right line, seems to be fabulous; nor is there any foundation for the story that the tears and alluring voice of this creature will draw persons to it, in hopes of devouring them; or that the little bird hochilos lives on the meat it picks from the crocodiles teeth; or that the ichnemmon, or rat of Pharaoh, destroys this animal, by jumping into his mouth, and cutting his way out again through his belly, though it must be confessed he is a terrible enemy to this species, and destroys both his eggs and young fry with great avidity.

The crocodiles will leap out of the river on a man or beast that stands near it, and seize him with their fore-paws; but if the distance be too great, they make a spring, and with their tails endeavour to beat down their prey.

We are told, that the most common method of killing crocodiles, is, by shooting them in the belly, where the skin is soft, and not covered with scales like the back. The natives destroy them by making some animals cry at a distance, and when the crocodile comes out, they thrust a spear, to which a rope is tied, into his body; then letting him retire into the water to spend himself, they afterwards draw him out, run a pole into his mouth, and, leaping upon his back tie his jaws together. The people say, they cannot seize a man in the water, and therefore frequently cross the Nile by swimming both by themselves and with their cattle, even above the first cataract, where there are a great number of crocodiles.

They are not fond of salt water, but love to continue in rivers. They lay their eggs in the sand, having previously dug a hole with their fore-paws to deposit them in. Having delivered some of their burden, they cover up the place with great care, and then retire. The next day they return again, uncover the place, lay about the same number of eggs, and then retire till the ensuing day, when they repeat the same for the last time, after which the hole is finally closed. As soon as the eggs are hatched by the warmth of the sun, which happens at the end of thirty days, the young ones begin to break the shell. The mother, by instinct, goes at the same time to assist them by scratching away the sand. The moment they are at liberty, the strongest move towards the water, and the rest mount upon the back of the mother, who carries them safely to it; but the moment they arrive at the water, all natural connection ceases, for when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, she and the males become their most formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can; the whole brood scatters into different parts at the bottom, and most of them are destroyed. This animal is not only an enemy to its own species, but is at perpetual war with all other living creatures. Man is its professed foe, and kills it to prevent its depredations, as well as to eat it.

The flesh of the crocodile is but indifferent food, though the eggs are deemed great delicacies, and are sought after very eagerly, not only by man, but by many beasts and birds of prey. The vulture is particularly successful in destroying its eggs, which they effect by the following stratagem: They hide themselves among the bushes and shrubs, about the banks of those waters where the crocodile inhabits, then watching till she hath deposited her eggs, they

they go to the place as soon as she retires, scratch away the sand, and feast upon the spoil. At other times, when they have not discovered a crocodile's nest, they are equally destructive to the young ones while they are running to the river.

Having mentioned the ichneumon, it may be proper here to give some account of that animal, which, with respect to shape and colour, resembles a badger; it has a snout like a hog, with which it roots up the earth and sand, the nose is prominent, and the ears short and round. It is of a yellowish colour at all times, when angry: but if provoked it bristles up its hair like a porcupine, and then appears of two colours, which are white and yellow, that run in distinct streaks. The legs are black, the tail long, and the tongue and teeth like those of a cat. It is an amphibious creature, can bear to remain under water much longer than the otter, and is bold, active, and nimble.

Some of the inhabitants, particularly those who are more savage than in Lower Egypt, have several strange methods in crossing the Nile, which they perform without the least apprehension of falling a prey to the crocodiles. Two men, our author observes, were set on a truss of straw, while a cow was swimming before, one of them held in one hand her tail, and with the other guided the beast by a cord fastened to her horns. The other man, who was behind, steered with a little oar, by means of which he kept at the same time the balance. The same person likewise saw some loaded camels crossing the river. A man swimming before held the bridle of the first camel in his mouth; the second camel was fastened to the tail of the first, and the third to the tail of the second; while another man brought up the rear, and took care that the second and third camels should follow in a row.

S E C T. II.

Containing an Account of the Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Education, Religion, &c. of the EGYPTIANS.

AS this country is inhabited by a variety of people, namely, Arabs, Moors, Copts or Coptis, Turks, Greeks, Jews, Franks, &c. so they materially differ in their persons, manners, habits, and customs. The Turks are tall, well-made, finely featured, fair, and dressed after the Asiatic fashion. The Arabs are a small swarthy people, and reside in tents scattered about the country in a circular form, which they remove as inclination prompts, or necessity requires. The Moors are nearly as swarthy as the Arabs, and in every other particular resemble the Moors of the Bombay states. The Greeks are in every particular like those of the Levant; the Jews in all respects resemble those who reside in the other parts of Africa; and the Franks may be characterized from the different nations to which they belong.

The real Egyptians, called Copts or Coptis, who are descended from the original inhabitants of the country, are a very ill-favoured, bad-shaped, effeminate, slovenly and dirty people. They are disagreeable to the beholders in themselves, and receive no manner of addition from their dress; for if the latter be ever so good, they put it on so awkwardly, as to appear very ridiculous to other people; and indeed the best dress cannot remain long decent upon them, as they frequently use their long sleeves not only to wipe their hands and mouths after meals, but to blow their noses on at other times. The Coptic tongue is a corruption of the antient Egyptian, and is now a dead language. These people are said to have been called Coptis, from their retiring to Coptus, and the adjacent places, during the first persecutions.

The people of this country are naturally inclined to indolence, and take great delight in sitting still, and hearing tales, and indeed appear to be always more fit for a quiet than an active life. This probably may be owing to their being enervated by the heat of the country. They are also envious and mischievous; which prevents their uniting and setting up for themselves. The Mahometan inhabitants are either original natives, who live in the villages, or of the Arab race. The latter are divided into those who are also settled in the villages, and are for the most part an honest, harmless people; who live in tents, and chiefly subsist on their cattle, which are principally camels and goats, that feed on small shrubs. The Turks, who are thus named to distinguish them from the Arabs and the original natives of the country, are those sent by the grand signior, and the slaves. These are the governing party, and are remarkable for being most ava-

ricious, and very fond of power: the Turkish dress distinguishes them from the others.

In the country, most of the children go naked in summer, and many of them do so all the year round. The most simple dress of the natives resembles that worn by the antient Egyptians, who were clothed in linen, and over it had a woollen garment: this, it is not improbable, may be somewhat like the primitive manner of cloathing. They wear a long shirt with wide sleeves, commonly tied about the middle. The common people have over it a brown woollen shirt; those of superior rank a long cloth coat, and over that a long blue shirt; but in the dress of ceremony, they wear a white shirt instead of a blue one, which, in Upper Egypt, they appear in on festival days, and when they visit their superiors. In the lower parts of the country they use a garment of the same form made of black woollen, which is sometimes left open before, and the people of rank have them of cloth adorned with furs. The Coptis and Arabs always wear large sleeves; but the Turks only wear them upon public occasions; at other times their sleeves are small and close. The people in general wear drawers, but the men do not tuck the shirt or under garment into them, though the women do. Some of the Turks, over their linen drawers, wear another pair made of red cloth, but the latter reaches to the ancles, and beneath them yellow socks are worn.

We have the following account of the true Mamaluck dress; which is the shirt garment above-mentioned, put into their great red trowsers, which are tied round the leg at each ancle, the foot being left bare; and they wear the sort of shoes used by the Arabs when they ride. In other respects they dress like the Turks; and this is the dress of the slaves, as also of the great men, except on extraordinary occasions.

Among the descendants of the Arabs, and the native Mahometans, it is almost a general custom to wear in winter a white or brown blanket, and in summer a blue and white cotton sheet. This the Christians in the country also constantly use, wrapping it round their bodies over the left shoulder, and under their right arm, which is left free; and in some parts of the country no other cloathing is worn by young people and the poorer sort.

The Janissaries, Arabs, Egyptians, and Christians here, wear slippers of red leather, while those of the Jews are blue. Within doors, the Turks and Christians out of frugality, wear a kind of wooden clogs, some of which are made very fine. People, in short, are distinguished by the dress of their head and feet; and are fined if they do not follow the custom: hence none but foreign Christians are permitted to wear yellow slippers. The dress for the head, is either the turban, or red woollen cap that fits close to the head, which is worn among the Coptis and the Arabs by the lower class of people.

The drawers, worn by the women, and most of their other garments, are of silk; all but their outward dress are shorter than the mens, and their sleeves hang down very low. They wear on their heads a white woollen skull-cap, and over it an embroidered handkerchief, round which their hair is plaited. Over all they have a large black veil. As it is esteemed indecent to shew too much of the face, they generally cover the mouth and one eye, if not the whole face. Women of ordinary rank have a large garment like a surplice, of blue linen or cotton, and before their faces hang a kind of bib joined to the head-dress by a tape over the nose: thus hiding all the lower parts of the face, and leaving the eyes uncovered, which gives them a very odd appearance.

The women, among the vulgar, especially the blacks, wear rings in their noses adorned with glass beads, and have ear-rings three inches in diameter, that come round their ears, and are adorned with stones; they likewise wear stone rings on their fingers, which among the ordinary people are of lead, while those in better circumstances have them of gold. The bracelets are generally of wire, but some are of plain iron or brass, but others have them of gold finely jointed. The women, among the vulgar, paint their lips, and the tip of their chin, with blue, and those of superior rank paint their eye-lids black, and their nails and feet yellow; but both, in order to render themselves attractive, take great pains to make their appearance frightfully hideous to strangers.

In Egypt, education chiefly consists in learning to read and write, which the Coptis generally obtain, together with book-keeping; but few of the Arabs and native Mahometans can read, except those bred to the law, or educated for some post. The best education is given to the slaves, who often understand Arabic and Turkish, and frequently

frequently write both. They are also well skilled in riding, shooting, and throwing the dart; which are esteemed great accomplishments.

It may not be improper, before we describe the present state of religion in Egypt, to give some account of that used by the antient Egyptians, who were gross idolaters, and worshipped the most fabulous deities, surpassing all other people in superstition. They had a great number of gods of different orders and degrees, which we shall omit, as belonging more to fable than history. Among the rest, two were universally adored in that country, and those were Osiris and Isis, which are thought to be the sun and moon; and indeed the worship of those luminaries have given rise to idolatry.

Besides these gods, the Egyptians worshipped a great number of beasts; as the ox, the dog, the wolf, the hawk, the crocodile, the ibis, the cat, &c. Many of these beasts were the objects only of the superstition of some particular cities; and whilst a people worshipped one species of animals as gods, their neighbours had the same animal gods in abomination. This was the source of the continual wars which were carried on between one city and another; and this was owing to the false policy of one of their kings, who, to deprive them of the opportunity and means of conspiring against the state, endeavoured to amuse them, by engaging them in religious contests.

Every nation had a great zeal for their gods. "Among us, says Cicero, it is very common to see temples robbed and statues carried off; but it was never known, that any person in Egypt, ever abused a crocodile, an ibis, or a cat; for its inhabitants would have suffered the most extreme torments, rather than be guilty of such sacrilege."

It was death for any person to kill one of these animals voluntarily; and even a punishment was decreed against him, who should have killed an ibis, or a cat, without design. Diodorus relates an incident, to which himself was an eye-witness, during his stay in Egypt. A Roman had inadvertently, and without design, killed a cat; the exasperated populace ran to his house: and neither the authority of the king, who immediately detached a body of his guards, nor the terror of the Roman name, could rescue the unfortunate criminal. And such was the reverence which the Egyptians had for these animals, that in an extreme famine, they chose to eat one another, rather than feed upon these imagined deities.

Of all these animals, the bull Apis, called Epaphus by the Greeks, was the most famous. Magnificent temples were erected to him; extraordinary honours were paid him while he lived, and still greater after his death. Egypt went then into a general mourning. His obsequies were solemnized with such pomp as is hardly credible. In the reign of Ptolemy Lagus, the bull apis dying of old age, the funeral pomp, besides the ordinary expences, amounted to upwards of fifty thousand French crowns. After the last honours had been paid to the deceased god, the next care was to provide him a successor, and all Egypt was sought through for that purpose. He was known by certain signs, which distinguished him from all other animals of that species; upon his forehead was to be a white spot in form of a crescent; on his back, the figure of an eagle; upon his tongue, that of a beetle. As soon as he was found, mourning gave place to joy; and nothing was heard, in all parts of Egypt, but festivals and rejoicings. The new god was brought to Memphis, to take possession of his dignity, and there installed with a great number of ceremonies. Cambyfes, at his return from his unfortunate expedition against Ethiopia, finding all the Egyptians in transports of joy for their new god apis, and imagining that this was intended as an insult upon his misfortunes, killed, in the first start of his fury, the young bull, who, by that means, had but a short enjoyment of his divinity. It is plain, that the golden calf set up near mount Sinai by the Israelites, was owing to their abode in Egypt, and an imitation of the god apis; as well as those which were afterwards set up by Jeroboam, (who had resided a considerable time in Egypt) in the two extremities of the kingdom of Israel.

The Egyptians, not contented with offering incense to animals, carried their folly to such an excess, as to ascribe a divinity to the pulse and roots of their gardens: for this, they are ingeniously reproached by the satyrists:

Who has not heard, where Egypt's realms are nam'd,
What monster gods her frantic sons have fram'd;
Here Ibis gorg'd with well grown serpents, there
The crocodile commands religious fear:
Where Memnon's statue magick strings inspire
With vocal sounds that emulate the lyre;

And Thebes, such fate, are thy disastrous turns!
Now prostrate o'er her pompous ruin mourns;
A monkey-god, prodigious to be told!
Strikes the beholder's eye with burnish'd gold;
To godship here, blue Triton's scaly herd,
The river progeny is there prefer'd:
Thro' towns, Diana's power neglected lies:
Where to her dogs aspiring temples rise:
And should you leeks or onions eat, no time
Would expiate the sacrilegious crime:
Religious nation sure, and blest abodes,
Where ev'ry orchard is o'er-run with gods.

Several reasons are given of the worship paid to animals by the Egyptians.

The first is drawn from fabulous history. It is pretended, that the gods, in a rebellion made against them by men, fled into Egypt, and there concealed themselves under the forms of different animals; and that this gave birth to the worship which was afterwards paid to these animals.

The second is taken from the benefit which these several animals procure to mankind; oxen by their labour; sheep by their wool and milk; dogs by their service in hunting and guarding houses; whence the god anubis was represented with a dog's head. The ibis, a bird very much resembling a stork, was worshipped because he put to flight the winged serpents, with which Egypt would otherwise have been grievously infested; the crocodile, an amphibious creature, that is, living alike upon land and water, of a surprizing strength and size, was worshipped, because he defended Egypt from the incursions of the wild Arabs; the ichneumon, a kind of rat, was adored, because he prevented the too great increase of crocodiles, which might have proved destructive to Egypt.

After having thus given an account of the religious worship of the antient Egyptians, we shall proceed to take notice of that practised by the modern ones; and must first premise, that the present established religion in Egypt is that of the Mahometans, which is here exercised in all respects the same as in Turkey, except that they are not quite so strict in observing it in the former, as they are in the latter.

It appears by the most antient and authentic records, that Christianity was first planted in Egypt by St. Mark, who was the first bishop of Alexandria, then the metropolis of the kingdom. The jurisdiction of these prelates was settled by the council of Nice over all the churches of the diocese of Egypt, which included Libya, Pentapolis, and Egypt properly so called; and afterwards the Ethiopian or Abyssinian churches, became subject to this patriarch.

In the time of Severus, a persecution against the Christians went through all the Roman provinces, but it was more violent at Alexandria than any where else; and many Christians of the first rank in Egypt suffered martyrdom; particularly the two female confessors, St. Felicia and St. Perpetua. Churches were established in Egypt in the third century.

The religion which is professed here by the Coptis, is that of the native Christians. The Greeks also are very numerous at Cairo and in Dalmatia; but there are not many of them in the other parts of the country, except a few merchants in the principal towns. The Christian religion would still be at a lower ebb, did not the people find it convenient to have Coptis stewards, who are well acquainted with business, and very expert at keeping accounts, which they do in a sort of Coptic characters that none but themselves understand. They are the protectors of the Christians in every village and town.

The Coptis, in general, are very irreverent and careless in their devotions; yet they spend the night before Sundays and festivals in their churches, which they no sooner enter, then they pull off their slippers and kiss the pavement. They pass their holidays in sauntering about, sitting under shady trees in summer, and under their walls in winter. They seem to imagine that religion consists in repeating their long services, and in the strict observance of their numerous fasts. They use the liturgies of St. Basil, St. Gregory, and St. Cyril; but the first, being shortest, is ofteneft read. However, both the priests and people are extremely ignorant with respect to the doctrines of their religion; the former perform the service in the Coptic language, which they generally understand very imperfectly, but they have books of their liturgy with an Arabic interpretation annexed to them.

These people are said to fast seven months in the year.

The

The children are espoused at seven or eight years of age, and consummate at eleven or twelve; and a little before that time they are circumcised. They easily procure divorces on account of adultery, long sickness, or disagreement; and, at their desire, the patriarch, or bishop, gives them leave to marry again: but, if this be refused, they go to the cady, who will do it readily, and this is practised all over Turkey by the Christians.

The child at baptism, is plunged three times into the water, and then the priest dips the end of his finger into the consecrated wine, and puts it into the child's mouth; but if the child happens to be sick, instead of being immersed in water, it is laid on a cloth near the font, and the priest, dipping his hands in water, rubs it all over him; but if the infant be too ill to be brought to church, they then only anoint him, which they say is baptism sufficient under that circumstance.

The sacrament is administered by them in both kinds on Sundays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, on all their numerous holidays, and every day in lent; and when the priest, in reading the service, mentions Peter's cutting off the ear of the high priest's servant, the people cry out, Well done Peter. They abstain from swine's flesh, from blood, and things strangled; pray for the dead, and prostrate themselves before pictures; but have no images, except a crucifix. They also administer extreme unction, and at the same time give absolution, anointing all the people present in order to repel the evil spirit.

Notwithstanding the religion of the Coptis in many respects resembles that of the Greeks, yet they bear an implacable hatred to them; and have generally as little regard for the Europeans; which proceeds in a great measure from the endeavours of those of the Romish church to make converts of them; for they seldom distinguish between those of different religions, but include all under the name of Franks, the name they give to Christians in general.

Jews are very numerous in Egypt, and, as in times of paganism, they were afraid of drinking wine offered to idols; they still have here all they drink made by their own people, sealed up and sent to them. This custom they observe throughout all the east. There is a particular sect among them who live by themselves, and have a separate synagogue: these are the ancient Essens, who are now called charaims. They are distinguished by their regard to the five books of Moses, which they strictly observe according to the letter, without receiving any written traditions whatever.

In Egypt, the Turks are deeply tinged with the doctrine of predestination, which not only inspires them with courage, but makes them discover great magnanimity, when thrown from the height of power into a state of poverty and distress, saying, It is the will of God. They indeed behave better in adversity than in prosperity: for though persons in high rank assume a becoming gravity, and confer favours in a very graceful manner, they are greedy of money; for nothing is to be done with them without a bribe; and they are apt to fancy that the greatest villainies are expiated as soon as they have washed their hands and feet, which is their preparation for prayer. Religion is fashionable among them; they pray in the most public places, and when on a visit will call for water to wash, and then perform their devotions; and yet their words generally pass for nothing, either in their promises or professions of friendship.

Opium is less used by them than formerly. The Arabs seldom drink wine or strong liquors, and the common people pound leaves of green hemp, make them up into a pill, and swallow it, in order to render them chearful.

The poorest Mahometan thinks himself superior to the richest Christian; but the Arabs and people of the country behave with great civility; and, sitting about the stranger, grow troublesome, by being too curious and inquisitive. The Turks indeed behave with great civility, either to obtain presents, or to discover your designs, in which they are very artful. They treat their superiors with the utmost decorum and respect, and one of great dignity readily holds the stirrup to another who is still greater than himself.

Their salutation, as they pass, is, by stretching out the right hand, bringing it to the breast, and a little inclining of the head. The extraordinary salute is kissing the hand, putting it to the head. When they visit a superior, they kiss his hand; but if he be greatly their superior, they kiss the hem of his garment. When they take any thing from a superior, or that is sent by a superior, they kiss it, and put it to their foreheads; and they put their hand to their turban, when they promise to serve or protect you. The word made use of in these salutations is peace; but this

simple word a Mahometan cannot be prevailed on to make use of to a Christian. Joining the hands, and bowing the head several times to him saluted, is the Arab salutation.

The Egyptians are very frugal in their provisions, as they do not often eat; and the tables of the great are of little expence, considering the number of their attendants, in which they are very extravagant; for they sometimes have fifty or sixty slaves, and many other servants.

The Turks, at their meals, make use of a low circular, or octangular stool, instead of a table, under it a coloured cloth is placed on the ground, and over it a kind of table cloth is spread, large enough to come into the lap of the guests. They give to people of condition a napkin before they eat, and another after they have done, previous to their washing. A copper dish, tinned both within side and without, is put on the stool, and bread, pickles, fallads, &c. are placed round it. Two or three dishes are then served up, to which the company either kneel, or sit cross-legged. They use no knives or forks; they employ their right hand only at meals, and tear the meat with it in a beastly manner, and the master of the house sometimes throws large pieces to such of the guests as he would pay an extraordinary compliment to. The entertainment consists of two or three courses, and coffee immediately succeeds. The second consists of pilu, soups, sweet ragouts, stewed dishes, pieces of meat cut small and roasted; and *dulma*, which is any kind of vegetable stuffed with forced meat. The inferior kind of servants, who are not slaves, eat what is left; but the slaves have a meal of the coarsest kind of food provided on purpose for them. The Arabs, for their own family use only a skin by way of table cloth, which they spread upon the ground; but when they have company, a coarse woollen cloth is substituted; when whole sheep and lambs, boiled or roasted, are served up; and as soon as one company has done, another falls to, till all is consumed by the guests.

An Arab prince, it seems, will often dine in the street, before his door, and call to all that pass, even beggars, and permit them to sit down to the repast, for the Arabs, being great levellers, put all persons on a footing with themselves; and, by such hospitable and generous behaviour, maintain their interest with the people; but the middle class among them, and the Coptis, live poorly.

At a Turkish visit, a pipe is immediately brought, and coffee; if it is a visit of ceremony, sweetmeats with the coffee; afterwards a sherbet; and then according to the quality of the person, incense and rose-water, to perfume. Some of them have music at certain hours of the day, and in others a man tells some history, or an Arabian tale. Tradesmen have often their provisions brought to the coffee houses, and they having little or nothing to do, spend whole days in them. If any one goes to the house or tent of an Arab, bread is immediately made, and they serve up four milk, fried eggs, and oil to dip the bread in, a salt cheese like curds, and other things of a like nature.

The women in Grand Cairo are obliged to ride on asses because the men are weak enough to put confidence in an old prediction, which declares, that a woman on horseback shall sometime or other take that city. They are likewise obliged to have short stirrups, which would be disgraceful for a man riding on an ass to make use of. Friday is the day appointed for women to go abroad, when they repair to the sepulchres of their relations, to adorn them with boughs and flowers, to hang a lamp over them, and pour water upon their graves. Ladies of distinction are attended by many female slaves, who follow them all mounted upon asses. The women, in riding, wear yellow boots without soles.

Here are public bagnios for men and women: the women more particularly meet in theirs, where they freely chat of the current news, and converse together without the least reserve.

The *santos*, or *fantonis*, a kind of enthusiasts, are very much admired in Egypt. They are very numerous; some of them go intirely naked; others have a rag or skin of a beast round about their loins, for the sake of decency. Some lead a solitary life in holes or caverns, others run begging about the city: these last are very troublesome to every decent person who passes the streets, particularly the Franks, who generally ride when they have occasion to go to any distant part of the city: for these *santos* will take hold of the ass's neck, and keep with you until you give them something. One of these, who begs between Cairo and Boulack, with a brick or stone in his hand, will accept of nothing unless the donor puts it thereon: one of these fellows has been seen to run his head several times against a stone wall, for the sake of two or three paras. Those

santos

santos who go intirely naked are esteemed by the people, who say they are undoubtedly in a state of innocence, otherwise they would know they were naked, and would ask for clothes. The santos who beg on the banks of the Nile, between Rosetta and Cairo, wear their own hair. Most of them have got some favourite passage of the alcoran by heart, which they repeat in the streets. Many of the tombs are covered with a building in form of a cupola. These mausoleums are erected at the expence of those who most admired the santo in his life-time. When the followers of a santo cannot afford to build him a magnificent sepulchre, they will, when carrying him to the grave, suddenly stop, then run backward, as though impelled by some external force; and as soon as they have (or rather pretend to have) recovered themselves, they will feign to try again to get the corpse to the grave, and suddenly run backward as before. After several pranks, they declare the holy man will not be buried in the common ground, but must have a mausoleum erected over him. The populace believe this, and a collection is immediately made to defray the expence of building one.

The people in general are great believers in magic, divination, and fortune-telling; are fond of talismans, philtres, and charms; and firmly believe that the eyes of some particular persons, commonly called evil eyes, have the power of doing great mischief, by fascination. This brings us to inquire into the first rise of that rascally people called gypsies, those pretended fortune-tellers that infest most countries in Europe and Asia, and who are generally held to be of Egyptian extraction, at least the first of them were such. They are called in Turkey Zinganees from their captain Zinganeus, who when Sultan Selimus made a conquest of Egypt about the year 1517, with several other Mamalukes, and as many native Egyptians as refused to submit to the Turkish yoke, retired into the deserts, where they lived by rapine and plunder, and frequently came down into the plains of Egypt, committing great outrages in the towns upon the Nile under the dominion of the Turks; and idle people frequently resorting to them in hopes of participating in their plunder, they encreased at length to so formidable a body, that the Turks were glad to come to a treaty with them, wherein it was agreed they should lay down their arms and be permitted to exercise any other callings with the same privileges other subjects enjoyed.

The Zinganees, however, having been long used to a vagabond rapacious way of living, and composed of a mixture of nations, who, during their depredations upon all mankind in the deserts, had lost all sense of religion, and became averse to the following any art or science, began to have recourse to their former ways of rapine and robbery; and though they were often forgiven by the Turks for fear of another insurrection, yet it being found at length that they were not to be reclaimed, the government were compelled to banish the Zinganees their country, and a power was given to any man to kill a Zinganee, or make him his slave, if he was found in Egypt after a limited time; and this edict was so well executed, that a Zinganee was not to be seen in Egypt for several years after; at least, any that dare profess themselves such, for it seems they agreed to disperse themselves in small parties into every country in the known world; and as they were natives of Egypt, a country where the occult sciences, or the black art, as it was called, was supposed to have arrived to great perfection; and which in that credulous age was in great vogue with people of all religions and persuasions: they thought that they could not pitch upon a more effectual way to gain a subsistence, and yet indulge that lazy wandering life they had been used to, than by setting up for a more than ordinary skill in foretelling future events; and as they had by a profligate life quite eradicated all principles of honour and conscience, no doubt they had a view of supplying their necessities by other means when fortune-telling should fail them.

The reason these people are still tolerated in Turkey, may be, that they do there, at least of late years, apply themselves to some handicraft business, particularly the making of edge tools, which they are very excellent at; carrying their tents and utensils upon asses, and usually pitch their black camp near some great town, where by working, thieving or fortune-telling, they make a pretty good provision for their bellies, but do not much trouble themselves about clothing or furniture; and when the people begin to grow weary of their pilfering tricks, they move off to some other part of the country. They have a prophecy, it seems, amongst them, that they shall recover the dominion of Egypt again, and the Turkish empire

after a certain period shall be destroyed, which Mr. Hill has given us in English verse as follows:

Years over years shall roll,
Ages o'er ages slide,
Before the world's controul,
Shall check the crescent's pride.

Banish'd from place to place,
Wide as the ocean's roar,
The mighty gypsy race
Shall visit every shore.

But when the hundredth year
Shall three times doubled be,
Then shall an end appear
To all their slavery.

Then shall the warlike pow'rs
From distant climes return;
Egypt again be ours,
And Turkish turrets burn.

There is also in Egypt a very particular sort of people called dervises, who may be distinguished into two or three classes. Those that are in convents are a kind of religious order, and live retired; though some of those travel with credit, and return to their convents. Some who assume this character live with their families, and follow their trades: these also appear to be a good kind of people. But there is a third sort that travel about the country and beg, or rather oblige every body to give. They all wear an octagonal badge of white alabaster, with a greenish cast, on their girdles, and they have a high stiff cap without any ornament; the tarcomen wear the same, but with a white fash about it, and a little more pointed. Except those who live in convents, and others at a small distance from Cairo, there are not many of these people in Egypt.

Before we quit this section, it will be proper to mention, that among the inhabitants of Egypt, above described, there are two sorts of a peculiar kind, the first of whom are called the established Bedouins or Bedwines, and the latter the Wandering Bedouins. The former live in villages, and are to be considered as peasants of the country. The Wandering Bedouins lead the same life as the antient patriarchs, living under tents, upon the milk of their cattle, and shift their habitations for the convenience of pasture: they always encamp in places where they can conveniently come at water: some take up their residence near the mountains, and others retire to places before uninhabited. With respect to these people, it is said, the golden age is still in being: their cattle not only furnish them with the most delicious repasts, but also supply them on other occasions. The wool of their sheep suffices to cloath them, as they make a stuff with it which defends them from the injuries of the weather. A celebrated French writer observes concerning them, that "they have no difference about religion, no wrangling doctors or divines; since they pass their lives undisturbed by the rage of opposite parties, who are always ready to murder one another. These happy people have no tent encompassed with ditches, guarded by soldiers, and set apart for the confinement of prisoners of state; nor do they make it criminal for their brother to think differently from themselves respecting religious matters, every one having the liberty of addressing the deity in whatever language he pleases. A suit of law between two persons never lasts above twenty-four hours, for the oldest man in the tribe gives his decision of the matter in question on the spot. These people are ignorant of edicts and new regulations concerning property; for never does a Bedouin go to bed with an hundred thousand crowns in his pocket, and rise not worth a penny. The most he loses is a sheep, which a wolf may run away with in the night. He pays no tax at coming into the world, nor any at going out." But notwithstanding the panegyric of this writer, it is affirmed by others, (most probably the wandering tribes) that they frequently rob caravans, when they happen to be the stronger party. The principal men among them are called emirs and sheiks.

S E C T. III.

Giving a Description of the Cities of ALEXANDRIA, ROSETTO, GRAND CAIRO, DAMIETA, and other remarkable Places in EGYPT.

THE city of Alexandria was so called from Alexander the Great, who, after his return from consulting the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, built a city in the place where

Racotis stood, three hundred years before the birth of Christ. This city is called by the Turks Scanderia or Scanderoon, as among them Alexander is called Scander. It was once an opulent and elegant city, seated near the most westerly branch of the Nile, where the sea forms a most spacious haven resembling a crescent, in thirty-three degrees eleven minutes north latitude, and in thirty degrees thirty-nine minutes east longitude.

Travellers inform us, that the port of Alexandria was formed by the isle of Pharos which extended across the mouth of the bay, and towards the west end was joined to the continent by a causeway and two bridges, ninety paces in length. On a rock encompassed by the sea at the east end of the island was the ancient Pharos, or light house, so famous in antiquity, that it was esteemed one of the seven wonders of the world; and on the place where it stood is a castle called Pharillon. Nothing can be more beautiful, than to view from hence the mixture of antique and modern monuments in this city.

On passing the smallest castle, called the Little Pharillon, you see a row of great towers, joined together by the ruins of a thick wall. A single obelisk is of a sufficient height to make itself remarked where the wall has fallen down. On turning a little farther you perceive the towers appear again, but only in a distant view. New Alexandria afterwards makes a figure with its minarets, and at a distance rises Pompey's column, a most majestic monument: and the view is terminated by hills, towers, and a large square building, in which a magazine of powder is deposited.

The walls round the outside of the old city are beautifully built of hewn stone, strengthened by semi-circular towers twenty feet in diameter, and about one hundred and thirty feet distant from each other. At each of them are steps to ascend up to the battlements, there being on the top of the walls a walk built on arches. The inner walls which appear to be built in the middle ages, are much stronger and higher than the others and are defended by large towers, which are also very high.

A fourth part of the city was taken up by the palace, with the buildings belonging to it, and within it was the museum, or academy, and a burial place of the kings, where the body of Alexander was deposited in a gold coffin: but that being taken away it was put into one of glass, and was probably in that condition when Augustus taking a view of the corpse, adorned it with a golden crown, and scattered flowers over it.

With respect to the street, which extended the whole length of the city, it is said to have been a hundred feet wide, and had certainly many magnificent buildings, as appears from the granite columns still remaining in several places. Among these was the Gymnasium, or public schools, to which were porticos that extended above half a quarter of a mile. These may have been where there are great ruins to the west of that street, and some large columns of red granite still standing. In this magnificent street was also probably the forum, or court of justice, which was perhaps erected where some pillars remain nearer the sea, and are now to be seen.

But the most extraordinary remains of the ancient city are the cisterns built under the houses for receiving the water of the Nile, as they do at present. The canal of Canopus comes to the walls near Pompey's pillar, and has a passage under him. But the water is not only conveyed to the cisterns from the canal on its entering the city, but from several distant parts of the canal, by passages under ground, to the higher parts of Alexandria. The materials of the old city have been carried away to build the new, so that there are only a few houses, some mosques, and three convents within the old walls.

Among the mosques, is one called the mosque of a thousand and one pillars. Dr. Pococke observed that it has four rows of pillars to the south and west, and one row on the other sides. This, it is said, was a church dedicated to St. Mark, at which the patriarch resided, it being near the gate, without which the Evangelist is said to have suffered martyrdom. There is another great mosque, named St. Athanasius, which was also doubtless a Christian church. The Greeks, Latins, and Copts have each a monastery in the old city; but some poor Arabs being always encamped within the walls, it is dangerous being abroad after sun set.

All over the city are fragments of columns of beautiful marble, the remains of its ancient grandeur and magnificence. Among the rest an obelisk, formed of one single piece of granite, rises sixty-three feet high; but two of its four faces are so disfigured by time, that the hieroglyphics with which they were anciently covered can scarcely be seen.

This is still called the obelisk of Cleopatra. Another lies near it broken. About a quarter of a mile to the south of the walls stands Pompey's pillar on a small eminence. As this is not mentioned by Strabo, it was probably erected after his time, and perhaps in honour of Titus or Adrian.

Near the pillar abovementioned are some fragments of granite columns four feet in diameter; and it appears that some magnificent building was erected there, and that this noble pillar was placed in the area before it. Indeed some Arabian historians say, that here was the palace of Julius Cæsar. This pillar is of granite, and, besides the foundation, consists of only three stones: the capital is supposed to be eight or nine feet deep, and is of the Corinthian order, the leaf appearing to be the plain-laurel or bay leaf, and a hole being on the top, it has been thought that a statue was erected upon it: the shaft, including the upper torus of the base, is of one piece of granite marble, eighty-eight feet nine inches high, and nine feet in diameter: the pedestal, with part of the base, which are of a greyish stone resembling flint, are twelve feet and a half high, and the foundation, which consists of two tier of stones, is four feet nine inches; so that this pillar is an hundred and fourteen feet in height.

Three leagues from Alexandria are the ruins of an ancient temple in the water, with broken statues of sphynxes; and pieces of columns of yellow marble; and near it are the remains of other buildings, part of which appear to have been a grand portico, from there being many pieces of columns of grey and red granite; and from the order in which they lie, they seem to have belonged to a round temple. Most of them are three feet three inches in diameter, and fluted.

These ruins are situated in a wide bay, in which is a little island joined to the continent by a chain of rocks; and on the shore of this bay are cavities in the rocks, used as agreeable retreats, where people may enjoy the cool air, and without being seen, see every thing that passes in the port. The natural grottos in these rocks gave the ancients the opportunity of forming them, by the assistance of the chisel, into places of pleasure. Entire apartments are thus formed, and benches are cut for seats, where you may be secured from the wet, or bathe in a part of the grottos, into which the sea rises; and little harbours, sheltered from all the winds, were formed on the outside. There is a cavern generally called a temple, opposite the point of the peninsula that forms the port. The only entrance is a little opening, through which you pass, lighted by flambeaux, and stooping for twenty paces, when you enter a pretty large square hall. The ceiling is smooth, but the bottom and sides are covered with sand, and with the excrements of bats and other animals that harbour there. A passage leads from hence into a round cavern, the top of which is cut in the form of an arch. Here four gates are opposite to each other, each adorned with an architrave, a cornice, and a pediment, with a crescent on the top. One of these gates serves for an entrance, the others form each a niche, that may contain a kind of chest, saved out of the rock in hollowing it, and large enough to contain a dead body. We may hence perceive, that what in that country is esteemed a temple, was probably the tomb of some great man, or perhaps of a sovereign prince. It is reasonable to suppose, that farther on there are other structures of the same kind, as there is the appearance of a gallery, which continues beyond this supposed temple.

A celebrated writer, in speaking of New Alexandria, observes, that it may be justly denominated a poor orphan, who possessed no other inheritance but his father's venerable name. The prodigious extent of the ancient city is contracted, in the new, to a small neck of land, which separates the two harbours. The most superb temples are converted into plain mosques; magnificent palaces into ill-constructed houses; an opulent and numerous people are succeeded by a few foreign traders, and a multitude of wretches who are the slaves of those from whom they obtain a subsistence. This place, once celebrated for its commerce, is no longer any thing more than a place where people embark, and is so far from being a phoenix sprung from its own ashes, that it may with great propriety be deemed a reptile sprung from the dust and corruption with which the koran hath infested the whole country; but notwithstanding the meanness of the buildings in general, they have placed a great variety of columns, in several houses built round the courts on porticos: these columns were mostly of granite, with which they adorned the ancient city.

The decay of this city is principally owing to the discovery of the new way to the East Indies, by doubling the cape of Good Hope; for till then it was one of the chief marts to which the spices and valuable commodities of the East were brought, and dispersed into all the countries of Europe from thence.

The greatest part of the inhabitants are Jews, Turks, Copts, Greeks, and Armenian Christians, besides a few European merchants, most of which are the French and English; the former, it seems, flatter themselves with being treated with more respect, but the latter appear to have a better trade. The French maintain a consul dependent on the consul of Grand Cairo, and enjoy a flourishing trade. The English have also a consul, and send every year a great number of English vessels to Alexandria; but they are not always laden on the account of this nation.

With respect to the environs of Alexandria, they are very low; the only marks, by which the sailors can know the coast, are, the tower of the Arabians, which lies thirty-six miles to the westward of the town, and the column of Pompey. This circumstance often occasions ships bound to Alexandria to go to Cyprus, or to Syria, when the weather is foggy. There are neither woods nor pastures for a considerable distance round the town. The land is covered with sand, and some few date-trees grow on it, but the fruit is very indifferent. An ingenious writer observes, "that it is really a matter of surprise that this spot should be chosen for so great a capital to be built upon, where it is so difficult of access for ships, and so destitute of wood, water, and all other necessities of life. But it is much more to be wondered at, that the Ptolomies spent such immense sums to people this place, and to collect together in it all things that could be had in the world, in the greatest abundance."

The late Marcotis lies to the south of Alexandria: it is thirty miles long from east to west, and twelve broad. It is dry about four or five months in the year, and receives its waters out of the Nile at the time of its overflowing. The town of the Arabs, called by the natives the castle Abuzir, is at the west end of this lake. It is, indeed, a square earth, eighty feet high, and its fronts are each two hundred and fifty feet broad. It is built of fine free stone, and the walls are fourteen feet thick. About three quarters of a mile from this castle, is another tower, which is square at top, and round below, and six miles from thence there is another to the westward, on the walls of which are the remains of an inscription in Arabic: but all these buildings are in a very ruinous state at present.

The city of Rosetta, is esteemed one of the most pleasant places in Egypt, and, being refreshed by the winds which blow from the sea, is extremely healthy. It is called by the Egyptians Raschid, is situated twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, in thirty-one degrees five minutes north latitude, and in thirty-one degrees ten minutes east longitude from London: it stands on the west side of the branch of the Nile, anciently called Bolbetinum, or the Bolbutic branch, about four miles from its mouth. It is nearly two miles in length, but only consists of two or three long streets: but the buildings are stately, and the houses commodious. It is defended by two castles, one on each side of the branch of the Nile, by which merchandize is brought hither from Cairo. The fine country of Delta on the other side of the Nile, and two beautiful islands a little below the town, afford a delightful prospect; and to the north the country is agreeably improved by pleasant gardens of citrons, oranges, lemons, and almost all kinds of fruits, and is variegated by groves of palm-trees, small lakes, and fields of rice, which latter, when ripe, make a very beautiful appearance.

Here is a castle, about two miles north of the town, on the west side of the river. It is a square building, with round towers at the four corners, having port-holes at the bottom of it, and some pieces of brass cannon. It is built of brick cased with stone, and is said to have been erected about four hundred years. A little lower down, on the opposite side of the river, is a platform of guns; to the east of which are salt lakes, where great quantities of salt are collected. A little nearer to the sea, from the above castle, is another, whose walls, ordinance, and garrison, are in a poor condition.

Somewhat below this second castle, the Nile splits into two branches, one turning east, and the other west, and forming what is called a bogaz or bar in their mouth, which is known by the name of Canopic. This bar is very dangerous to pass over, especially when the sea is agitated by a northerly wind.

The water at Rosetta, though situated near the sea, is in

general very good, unless when the north wind blows strong, or the Nile is at the lowest, at which time it is brackish. The river here does not rise above three or four feet; because the banks are low, and the water rising above them, spreads itself all over the adjacent country. The arm of the Nile, at Rosetta, is nearly of the same width as the Thames at Gravesend; but it lessens by degrees, till it becomes so shallow in many places as to be very dangerous, owing to the difficulty of avoiding the flats.

An island of a triangular form, is near this part of the Nile; it is called by the Greeks Latimia, on account of the division of the water here, by which two entrances are made at the mouth of the rivers. It is about a mile in circumference, and there are sandy hillocks from east to west along the middle of it. The island is a kind of morass towards the south, but to the north it is sandy.

A considerable manufactory of striped and coarse linen is carried on by the inhabitants of Rosetta; but the principal business of the place is the carriage of goods between this town and Cairo; for all European merchandize is brought hither by sea from Alexandria, and sent from thence in other boats to Cairo; and also that brought down the Nile from Cairo is here put into large boats, to be sent to Alexandria. On this account the Europeans have their vice-consuls and factors here to transact their business, and letters are regularly brought from Alexandria to be sent by the boats from Cairo; but those of great consequence, which require dispatch, are sent by foot messengers across the desert which lies between Alexandria and Rosetta.

Grand Cairo, the capital of Egypt, at present consists of Old and New Cairo, which are a mile distant from each other. It is situated about a mile from the eastern bank of the river Nile, and extends eastward near two miles to the neighbouring mountain. This city stands in middle Egypt, in thirty degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and in thirty-two degrees twelve minutes east longitude from London. It is about seven miles in circumference, and was much larger before the discovery of the East Indies by the way of the cape of Good Hope, it being then the center of trade, all spices of the East being brought to this city, and from thence to Europe.

The city of Grand Cairo may be said to consist of three towns or cities, namely, Old Cairo, which adjoins to it; Cairo, properly so called, and the port of Bulac. Old Cairo is at present reduced to a very small compass, not being above two miles round; but it is the port for the boats that come from Upper Egypt, and some of the beys and European merchants have houses here, to which they retire at the rising of the Nile.

The Jews have a synagogue here, which nearly resembles our churches, and is said to have been built in its present form one thousand six hundred years ago. They pretend that Jeremiah the prophet was on the very spot where they usually read the law, and that they have a manuscript of the bible written by Ezra; it is kept in a niche in the wall about ten feet high, before which a curtain is drawn, and lamps kept continually burning: this writing is esteemed so sacred, that none are permitted to touch it.

The streets in Cairo, like those in most of the Turkish cities are very narrow; and the widest extends the whole length of the place, but in Europe it would only be considered as a lane; and the others are so narrow, that the people frequently spread a light stuff across the houses, from one side of the street to the other, to defend them from the sun. Most of the streets, or at least each end of every ward, is shut up with gates as soon as it grows dark; and guards of janissaries are placed at some of the principal ones, so that no idle people can lurk about them without being discovered. Several streets consist only of shops, without any houses, which are also locked up at night, when the tradesmen return home; and the shops of the same trade are commonly together, as well in the berrastans, or exchange, as in the streets. Persons are appointed to sweep and sprinkle the streets every day with water, especially before the houses of the better sort; for being without any pavement, they are generally full of dust.

The outsides of their houses, like those in Turkey, are without any kind of ornament: the lower part is built of stone, and above is a sort of cage-work, sometimes filled up with unburnt brick; and the windows which look into the streets are secured with iron rails and curtains, in order to prevent the women from being seen. The insides are equally plain, having no other embellishments than the necessary furniture for domestic uses, except their saloons where they receive their friends and acquaintance. A person

son who visited the house of a bey, gives the following description of the fine saloon into which he was introduced. "It had, says he, a lobby before it. The grand room is an oblong square, with an octagon marble pillar in the middle, inlaid on two sides about eight feet high, with pannels of grey marble, each bordered with Mosaic work. The floor is covered with fine carpets; and the sofa extends all round the room, having rich velvet cushions belonging to it."

A canal, which comes out of the Nile close to Old Cairo, runs through the centre of the city. It has water during three months only, after which it is a mere dirty ditch. In the watery season it forms seven or eight small ponds in the city and its environs, waters the adjacent fields, and about nine miles from Cairo communicates with the Lake of Pilgrims.

After forming an idea of several squares or places about the city from a quarter to three quarters of a mile in compass, contrived so as to receive and retain the water of the Nile conveyed to them by the canal, as the river rises, we shall have a pretty just notion of the several lakes that are about the city during great part of the year, when nothing can be imagined more beautiful; for they are surrounded by the best houses in the city; and in the summer, when the Nile is high, are covered with fine boats and barges belonging to persons of distinction, who spend the evenings with their ladies on the water, where concerts of music are never wanting, and sometimes fireworks are added. All the houses round are in a manner illuminated, and the windows filled with spectators. This pleasing scene however, intirely vanishes when the waters are gone off, and nothing but mud appears. Yet even this is soon succeeded by the agreeable view of green corn, and afterwards of harvest in the midst of a great city, and in the very places where but a few months before the boats were sailing.

Here are twelve churches and a convent belonging to the Coptis, who pretend that the holy family were in a cave in the church dedicated to St. Sergius. Their churches are commonly adorned with columns in the front; they have two aisles with galleries over them supported by pillars, and the space for the altar is separated by a partition, that in some of them is finely ornamented with carving and inlaid work of tortoiseshell and ivory. The Romans have an hospital belonging to the fathers of the Holy Land. Here are also about half a dozen mosques, among which one named Amarah is said to have been a church, and is remarkable for having near four hundred columns, which, with their capitals, seem to have been collected from several buildings of great antiquity.

Though the city of Grand Cairo is very populous, yet the inhabitants of it are a mixture of various nations; such as original Egyptians, or the Coptis Christians; Arabs; people of Barbary and other western parts of Africa; and some from Nubia; but the principal parts of the inhabitants are descended from the Mamalukes. Here are also a great number of Jews, a few Armenians, and some Greeks.

There are several very handsome and convenient bagnios in this city, which are resorted to by great numbers of people: some visit them on a religious account, to purify themselves; while others go to them for refreshment and diversion; the latter are chiefly women, who, once or twice in a week, spend most of the day in them, and are glad of such a pretence to be released from their confinement. People of the first rank, to avoid intermixing with those of inferior character, have bagnios in their own houses.

Here are likewise many kanns, which they call okalas. These are indifferent buildings round a court, and are commonly appropriated to the use of merchants of particular countries for the sale of their respective commodities. There is one for those of Nubia, and the black slaves they bring with them; and another for white slaves from Georgia. They have likewise several kanns at Boulac; in which all strangers are at a very easy rate accommodated with a room.

There are, in Old Cairo, several square courts encompassed with walls about fifteen feet high, built chiefly with brick; and strengthened by semi-circular buttresses; these places are usually called Joseph's granaries. The houses are filled with corn, and room only left to enter at the door. The grain is covered with mats, and the door fastened only with wooden locks; but the inspectors of the granaries, by putting a handful of clay on the locks, fix their seal thereto. The corn brought from Upper Egypt, and paid as a tax to the Grand Signor, is deposited here, and distributed among the soldiers as a part of their pay. This granary, however, is not very antient, for it seems to have been built in the time of the Saracens.

At the north end of the city is a plain building for raising the water of the Nile to an aqueduct. The structure is an hexagon, each side of which is near ninety feet in length, and about as many in height. The water flows into a reservoir below, and is drawn up by five oxen, which turn so many Persian wheels, that empty the water into the aqueduct. These wheels are turned at the top of the building, to which is an ascent on the outside for the oxen to go up. Both this edifice and the aqueduct are built with free stone, in order to convey water to the castle. The aqueduct is supported by about two hundred and eighty-nine arches and piers of different dimensions, the former being only from ten to fifteen feet wide. These arches are low towards the castle-hill, where the water runs into a reservoir, whence by means of several wheels placed over each other, it is raised up to the castle.

A pleasant island named Roida, is opposite to Old Cairo; it is situated in the midst of the Nile, and extends near a mile in length. Towards the north end is a village of the same name, and at the south end is the Mikias, or house in which is the famous pillar for measuring the rise of the Nile. This is fixed in a deep basin, the bottom of which is on a level with the bed of the river, and the water passes through it. The pillar, which is placed under a dome supported by Corinthian columns, is divided into measures for observing the rise of the waters, and is crowned with a Corinthian capital, and form the court that leads to the house is a descent to the Nile by steps, on which the common people believe that Moses, after being exposed on the banks of the river, was found by Pharaoh's daughter.

The ceremonies practised at opening the canal, are some of the most remarkable customs observed at Cairo. When the Nile begins to rise, they cast up a bank of earth across the end of the canal near the river, and about the middle of August, when the water is risen to a proper height, it is broke down with great rejoicings. Mr. Thevenot, who gives the most particular account of these ceremonies, went to Boulac, the port of all the boats that come up the river, and which some reckon a part of Grand Cairo, to see the preparations, when he observed several galleys lying in the river, in the sterns of which were noble rooms, some of which were twelve or fourteen paces square, and surrounded with rails and ballusters gilt and painted, and the floors covered with rich carpets and cushions.

About seven in the morning the basha arrived in great state; as he passed, a sheep was killed in several places, and three or four more on the bank of the river. All the beys and great men of Cairo accompanied the basha in his galley, and having sailed as high as Old Cairo, he was saluted by the guns of the other vessels which followed in order. The sailors of the basha's galley were of several colours, and worked with large red roses, and the flags and streamers in this and the other galleys made a very pretty appearance on the water: the trumpets and other music played as they passed, while the guns fired, and the people shouted, to express their great joy. In this manner they moved gently along, till they came to the place where the bank was to be opened to let the water into the canal. Here the mob were waiting in crowds, and there being two pasteboard towers filled with fireworks, these were let off as the basha passed; in the mean time the people broke down the bank to give the water a passage into the canal, and boat loads of sweetmeats were thrown into the river, for which they jumped in and scrambled. The viceroy moved forward to his palace in the island of Roida, opposite to Cairo; and bonfires, illuminations, and fireworks were continued for three nights successively. There were particularly two vast machines representing a man and woman of gigantic stature placed on the river before the basha's palace, which took up no less than two thousand lamps to illuminate them; besides all the galleys, barges, and other vessels were hung full of lamps, and in them the music played, and fireworks with great and small guns were continually let off. But the ceremonies are more usually performed by land, when the basha, attended by his guards, proceeds on horseback along the canal, and coming to the end of it, dismounts, strikes the bank, takes horse, and riding back, leaves several persons to break it down, while great crowds follow him, singing and striking each other with cudgels. The water at length flows in accompanied by a number of men and boys swimming. Fireworks are played off, and all the while the canal is filling, it is covered with boats filled with young men, singing and playing on musical instruments, to express their joy for the fertility produced by this river to the country.

In this part of Egypt, is an ancient palace built by the seventh king, who was of the race of the Mamalukes, and lived about the year 1279. The entrance to the grand apartment is by a fine door somewhat in the Gothic taste. In this room is a noble saloon in the form of a Greek cross, with a cupola in the middle, and it is wainscotted, or rather inlaid, ten feet high, in a very expensive manner. Round the top, about two feet deep, are Arabic inscriptions; then with two feet more it is covered with mother of pearl, and different kinds of fine marble, in the form of small arches. Below this the wall is covered with pannels, some of the most beautiful marble, and others of mother of pearl; while all the pannels are surrounded with a border of Mosaic work, in azure and mother of pearl.

There are several magnificent mosques in New Cairo, particularly one on the north-east of the town called Kubbeel-Azab, which is about sixty feet square, and has a very beautiful dome raised on a base of sixteen sides, in each of which is a window. It is cased round with all the most beautiful kinds of marble, among which are several fine slabs of red and green porphyry. These are all placed in pannels finely carved and gilt, and above is a sort of frieze covered with sentences cut in large gilt characters, called the Couphe, in which they here antiently wrote the Arabic tongue. The walls above have Arabic inscriptions in letters of gold. All over the mosque are hung a great number of glass lamps and ostriches eggs: adjoining to this edifice are several apartments built for the priests; and also some very elegant ones for persons of rank, who sometimes come and reside there. This great building is said to have been erected by Jaafar, who conquered Egypt for Moezz, the califf. The window lattices both to their mosques and houses are very elegant, being curiously manufactured either of iron, brass, or wood. They are made of round bars let into each other, and forming small squares, which are decorated with a variety of ornaments.

At the foot of the castle-hill there is a mosque which exceeds all the rest, as well in the solidity of the building, as in its grandeur and magnificence, so as to strike the beholder with admiration. It is very lofty, and erected in the form of an oblong square, crowned with a cornice all round that projects a great way, and is adorned, after the Turkish manner, with a kind of grotesque carving. The entrance is inlaid with several kinds of marble, carved at the top.

The ascent to it was by several steps; but these have been broken down, and the door closed up, because, when public insurrections have happened, the rebels have often taken shelter there.

Eastward of the town of Tailoun stands the castle of Cairo, said to have been built by Saladin. It is seated on a rocky hill, and is walled round; but though it is very difficult of access, it is so commanded by the hill Tabel Mochattham to the east, as to be incapable of withstanding an attack since the invention of cannon. The eastern entrance is called the Gate of the Janissaries, and the western one the gate of the Arabs. The castle is about a mile in circumference; but yet it is an irregular building, and the principal part of it is in a very ruinous condition. At the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving, embroidering, and preparing hangings and coverings, great quantities of which are annually sent to Mecca by the caravan.

The eastern part of this castle stands on much higher ground than the rest, and near a grand saloon called Joseph's hall, from whence there is a delightful prospect of Cairo, the pyramids, and all the neighbouring country. This, it is probable, was a terrace to the saloon, which is open on every side, except to the south, and is adorned with large and beautiful columns of red granite, some of which have capitals of the Corinthian order; some are only marked out in lines like leaves, and many are only plain stones that do not much resemble capitals. In the west part of the castle is the goal, which the common people think to be the prison in which Joseph was confined at the instigation of an adulterous woman.

A small garrison is kept here; and the men are lodged in large towers, which form an inclosure or court, on the south side of which are the basha's apartments; so that whenever he receives an order from the Porte to quit his government, a battery of four or five cannon is raised against them; which would soon demolish them, should he offer any resistance. Near the basha's apartments are also those of the great divan, where the beys assemble three times a week under the kaia, or prime minister of the

bashas; and the latter sometimes sits in a room behind, that has a communication with some lattice-windows. A stranger may enter with the consul's interpreter; and, being afterwards conducted to the basha's coffee room, will be entertained by his servants with sweetmeats and coffee. Here are to be seen several leathern shields, each almost an inch thick, with a javelin sticking in them, wherewith it is said they were pierced by one of the sultans, and are kept as monuments of his strength. The officers under the basha have also noble apartments here.

Near the abovementioned apartments is the mint, where they coin their gold, and small pieces of iron washed over with silver; which last are of the value of three farthings, and are called medines.

In this castle there is a well, which is much admired on account of its great depth, which is two hundred and forty-four feet; but it has two shafts that are not perpendicular, above one another, the first is one hundred and forty-eight feet long, and the other one hundred and sixteen feet. It is generally called Joseph's Well, not from the patriarch of that name, but from a grand visir, who about seven hundred years ago had the care of the work under Sultan Mahomet; but the Arabians call it the Snail Well, because it descends in a spiral line. The water of it can only be drank at the time of the inundation; after which it is brackish, like all other wells in the town. They draw the water up by means of a double wheel, and a double range of earthen jars. The oxen employed to turn the wheel go up the first shaft by a path which is cut in the rock quite round the well from top to bottom.

There are grottos, in many stories, all up the side of the rock upon which this castle is built; but several of them are now inaccessible, though there is a way to others by a narrow terrace. These are generally narrow rooms, eight or ten feet square. Towards the brow of the hill, on the top, are two rooms, with holes on the top to admit the light; over which is an eminence, to which the great people often go to enjoy one of the finest prospects in Egypt, since it commands a view of Cairo and all the country as far as the eye can reach. Over the south cliff is a mosque, the inside of which is painted all over with flowers on a red ground: here was interred the Sheik Duise, whose name is given both to the hill and the mosque: several of the sheiks children and some of the sons of bashas are buried near it.

There is a kind of ancient suburb called Caraffa, to the south of the castle: at the entrance are several magnificent tombs covered with domes, and said to be the magnificent tombs of some Egyptian kings. The people in general suppose that they are the monuments of the califs, the relations of Mahomet, who conquered this country; and such is the veneration for them, that they oblige Christians and Jews to alight from their asses and camels to pay them respect, when they pass this way. On an eminence, adjoining to Caraffa, is the great mosque of El Iman Shafee, antiently one of the four doctors of the law, who is held in great veneration among them, and whose sepulchre is there. It is called Le Salchiah, from a title they gave Saladin who built it, together with a college and hospital.

There still remains a matter of a very singular nature, to be related of this part of the country, which every traveller who passes through it takes notice of; as first, their way of hatching chickens in ovens. They put their eggs in ovens, says Thevenot, which are heated with so temperate a warmth, and imitates so well the natural heat, that chickens are formed and hatched in them: these ovens are under ground, and the hearth of them covered with cotton or flax to lay the eggs upon. There are twelve of these ovens together, six on a side, two stories on each side the passage, that is three ovens above and three below on each hand: they begin to heat the ovens about the middle of February, and continue to heat them about four months: they heat their ovens only with the hot ashes of oxen, or camel's dung, which affords a smothering heat without any visible fire; this they lay at the mouth and the farther end of the oven, changing it and putting in fresh dung every day: this they continue to do for ten days, and then lay in the eggs, sometimes eight thousand in an oven; after eight or ten days they pick out the good from the bad, which are discovered by holding them to a lamp, then they put out the fire, and having laid one half of the eggs in the upper ovens, they shut up all close and let them lie about ten days longer, when the chickens are hatched; at which time it is very entertaining to see some of the chickens just putting forth their heads, others half out of the shell, and others quite free. Thunder occasions abundance

ance of eggs to miscarry ; and at best, it is observed that there are few of them which have not some defect, and nice people think they can distinguish one of these pullets from another by their palates. It has been disputed, it seems, whether this can be effected in any other country besides Egypt, where the natural heat of the climate is thought to contribute much towards these productions ; but M. Thevenot tells us, that the duke of Florence sent for some of the Coptis (who only follow this business) and hatched chickens in Italy in the same manner, and since that time, the late learned and ingenious M. Reaumur, after many experiments, found it practicable in France ; and in a work on that subject, which has been translated into English, has shown the manner of doing it.

Before we leave Grand Cairo, it may not be improper to give an account of the grand pilgrimage made annually from that city to Mecca, at which time the grand Signor sends thither a very costly present, said to amount to one-third of the value of the revenues of his kingdom.

At the time appointed for the caravan to prepare for Mecca, the presents are brought with great solemnity from the castle, through the city to the palace of the emir hadge, who is captain of the caravan of pilgrims, which our author had the opportunity of seeing performed. In the beginning of the procession came the servants of the beys and lords of Cairo, followed by the chiaux, azapes, and janissaries ; and after them the beys in person, of whom the emir hadge, and several other officers had rich costans or coats on, presented them by the basha on this occasion : then came the janissaries of the divan followed by men carrying four very long pieces of crimson velvet, embroidered with Arabic letters of gold as large as one's finger, and others carried a large door-piece of velvet embroidered in the same manner : after these came a camel well harnessed, carrying a great pavillion or tent of crimson satin embroidered with gold, and shaped like a bell, with a great gilt ball on the top of it ; then a little square pavillion, carried by a man, and some other utensils, which were all to be employed in hanging and adorning the caaba, or little temple of Mecca : after these great numbers of banners and colours were carried in procession, all the fantos with drums and music attending them ; the people in the mean time pressing and crowding to touch the sacred utensils, and those that could not get near enough threw a piece of linen to touch them, holding one end in their hands that they might draw it back again ; and it is not to be conceived with what devotion they would kiss the thing that had touched but a rope employed in the sacred present, which was to adorn the place they esteem most holy.

These ornaments being lodged at the palace of the emir hadge, two days after he went out of the town encamping near the city. The cavalcade on this occasion was not very different from the former, only there were six field pieces, which the emir always carries with him on these expeditions : there were also a great many little children mounted on camels and horses, who were the sons of the emir's officers, and several camels laden with provisions for the journey. A multitude of fantos in strange antic habits, also followed dancing and screwing themselves into a thousand ridiculous shapes and postures, like masquers at a carnival, as our author expresses himself. At length came the blessed camel which carried the pavillion above-mentioned, richly dressed out, with another to relieve him when he was weary.

It is wonderful, our author observes, to see the multitudes which come from all places to perform this pilgrimage, there being no less than five caravans of them, viz. That of Cairo, which consists of Egyptians, and of all those that come from Constantinople and the neighbourhood of it. That of Damascus, in which are all the pilgrims of Syria. That of the Magrebins, or those who come from the westward, consisting of the natives of Barbary, Fez, and Morocco, who meet at Cairo, and those of Persia and India. Those who come from Fez and Morocco undergo the greatest fatigue, travelling by land over large deserts, in which they employ a whole year, and one half of them usually die in the journey. The caravan of Cairo, our author says, was very numerous when he was there : there being in it four beys or princes, and several other great lords, besides an hundred thousand other pilgrims, as was given out ; but he understood afterwards they did not amount to a fifth part of that number. The emir hadge, or captain of the caravan, has usually fifteen hundred camels to carry his baggage, and sell to those who lose their own, for many of them die by the way ; and he has five hundred camels also to carry water only.

The emir hadge having encamped some time close to the city, removed twelve miles farther to the birque, being a great basin or reservoir of water, about twelve miles to the eastward of Cairo, and is the rendezvous of all the caravans. The emir hadge decamped from thence on the eighth of August, it being the custom for the caravan of Cairo to set out seven and fifty days after the beginning of the ramadan, that they may be at Mecca at the time prescribed : the next day, being the ninth of August, the caravan of Magrebins, who come from the western part of Africa, set forward ; these do not depend on the emir hadge of Cairo, but have a chief of their own. They travel chiefly in the night to avoid the heat, which is insupportable, and when there is no moon they have men who carry torches, and either in their camps, or on the march, that infinite number of lights which are spread over the deserts make a noble illumination, which is seen at a very great distance.

There are other reasons for going this pilgrimage to Mecca besides pure devotion : many go upon the account of trade, merchandize being brought thither from almost every part of the known world ; and some go, it is said, to escape the punishment of their crimes : for let a man have been guilty of the most notorious acts, he is never called in question if he makes this journey afterwards ; but obtains a general indemnity, and the character of a saint, on account of the fatigue and hazard he has undergone to see the holy place. But whatever may be the true inducement to the undertaking this journey, all perform it with abundance of seeming devotion, repeating or singing some verses of the alcoran all the way they go ; and bestowing their charity according to their respective circumstances : as to their behaviour when they arrive at the holy place, we have given an account of it already, in treating of the Persian pilgrims.

About six weeks after the setting out of the caravan from Cairo, it being computed that they are ready to return, an aga marches from Cairo to guard the fresh provisions which people send to their relations in the caravan ; all which are sealed up to be delivered to those to whom they are directed. The aga has a great number of camels assigned him for this service : and usually meets the pilgrims half way, being very well paid for his trouble. The year our author was in Egypt, the caravan returned and encamped at the birque twelve miles from the city on the thirteenth of November, and the caravan of Magrebins arrived there the day before ; several people came from Cairo to the birque to meet their friends and welcome them home ; and upon these occasions they salute and kiss all they know five or six times ; and indeed, there is nothing to be seen in the city but kissing and congratulations for five or six days successively, or else people lamenting the death of their relations who died in the journey.

The pilgrims are forty-five days in their journey from Cairo to Mecca, and as many in returning, besides the time they spend there ; but they make very easy journeys, often stopping to unload and load their camels, of which many die as well as of the people. They find but little water in the way, and that exceeding bad, and fresh provisions they meet with none but what they carry with them. What incommodes them most are the hot winds, which frequently suffocate or otherwise destroy them : in one day, it seems, there died several hundred of pilgrims by the hot winds in this journey ; and not less than six thousand belonging to the caravan of Cairo died by one misfortune or other. It is no uncommon thing, as our author relates, to hear a man singing some verses of the alcoran, and in a moment see him drop down dead from his camel : and those who return alive are so altered and emaciated that they can hardly be known by their friends : notwithstanding which there is not a year but many women and children perform this pilgrimage.

Those who have made this journey are called adgi or pilgrims, and are in great esteem in the countries where they live ever after. The emir hadge amasses vast sums in this command ; for besides his other profits he is entitled to the effects of all that die in the journey, of which perquisite alone he made three hundred thousand piastres in one year, there were so many of the pilgrims that died ; he is also supreme judge of all the people under his charge during the expedition. The number of those which compose the caravan seldom amounts to less than forty thousand ; but in times of peace and plenty it is often much greater. Every mussulman is obliged to make at least once in his life this grand pilgrimage to Mecca, the center of the Mahometan faith.

The city of Damietta, which is nearly opposite Rosetta, stands on the eastern branch of the Nile, between four and five miles from the mouth of the river. It is a very large place, but the houses in general are indifferently built, and its principal inhabitants are fishermen and janissaries. It is encompassed by walls, except that part which fronts the river, and, at the north end of it is a fine large round tower built of hewn stone. It is reckoned to be most advantageously situated for trade, on account of its commodious harbour on the Mediterranean.

This city is supposed to contain about twenty-five thousand inhabitants, without including its suburb on the other side of the Nile. Here are about four hundred Greek families, who are the principal merchants and traders in the city. They have a church, a bishop, and the free liberty of exercising their religion except the article of ringing the bell. Besides the Greeks, here, are many other strangers of various nations and religions; but they are greatly restrained in the enjoyment of their national privileges, and are afraid of going into the streets, especially after dark, on account of the insults they are liable to meet with from the Turkish soldiery, who have a natural antipathy to all strangers: but they have a particular aversion to Europeans, which seems to be handed down to them by their forefathers, and to be occasioned by the holy war, as this city was the principal scene of action, and where Lewis IX. was made prisoner. As a Christian is known by his mien, strangers dare not go out of the streets they are accustomed to frequent; nor must any person appear in an European dress.

With respect to the trade of this place, that chiefly carried on here is the export of rice and coffee to all parts of Turkey; and of the former, a contraband trade to Europe, which has been productive of tumults against the Christians. They have also an import of tobacco and soap; the latter from the coast of Syria, and the former from Latichea.

At a small distance from Damietta, and the south-west of the lake called Mareotis, is the castle of the labyrinth, so called from a famous ancient labyrinth, of which we may take some notice when we come to treat of the ancient state of Egypt. This antique edifice is about one hundred and sixty-five feet long, and eighty broad. The portico is a very rustic work, and the principal part of it destroyed, being no where above six feet high; but the front is in a more ruinous condition than any other part of it. The upper story, in the middle, is fallen down, and is almost intirely gone all the way from the breaking off. In its present state, there are forty-four tiers of stone, each nine inches deep, and consequently the whole is thirty-three feet high. This edifice, viewed all together, has the appearance of some antient palace, or other public structure; but its remains are incapable of conveying an adequate idea of its original magnificence and grandeur.

Many stones are scattered about the plain near this building, especially several round ones with holes in the middle; which seem to have composed the pillars that might have been about this edifice, and, by means of these holes, were probably fastened to each other.

The town of Suez is the next principal place that attracts our attention; it is situated at the north end of the Red sea, and is thought to be built on the spot where formerly stood the antient city of Arsinoe. It is a considerable seaport on the isthmus of its name, which joins Asia and Africa, and is advantageously seated on a small peninsula that juts into the utmost verge of the Red sea, about sixty-three miles south-west of Cairo. The trade between the last mentioned place and this town is effected by ships belonging to private persons at Cairo.

Southward of this town there is a large sandy bank about two miles long, to the east of which is a road to go out to the shipping; and when there is no wind, they draw the boats along by this bank. About a mile south-west of it are the ships, three miles from the town, the deep water being on the west, where the shore is inclosed by high hills; but there are considerable shoals where the land is low, on the east side.

Suez, is a small town; but the houses, mosques, quay, magazines, and other public edifices, are made of a most curious sort of stone, consisting of a vast number of shells, so closely united by nature as to be inseparable. Here are four mosques, all of which are very handsome buildings; and here is also a Greek church. Most of the inhabitants are Mahometans, there being only about sixty Greek families, and a few Coptis. They fetch all the necessaries of life, and even pot herbs, from Cairo; for the country,

near sixty miles round, does not produce any thing. Water is likewise very scarce, inasmuch that they are obliged to get it from a place nine miles off, and pay two-pence per pail for it, though it is of a brackish quality.

This town is governed by a captain, whose business chiefly depends on the ships, and he has under him a caimacam (the ordinary governor of towns), who both together, or separately, govern the affairs of the place. The caimacam generally resides here, and the captain when the ships are in the port. They have a garrison of about three hundred men, one half janissaries, and the rest Arabs; and these last are commanded either by a civil officer of their own, stiled sader, or by a sheik. The harbour lies north and south, is not large, and has very little water: when the tide has ebbed out, it is not above five feet deep.

As this harbour is only fit for small ships, the larger ones, which are employed in bringing goods to Jedda and other parts, anchor in another harbour, about four miles and an half from the town. Many of their vessels will carry from one hundred and eighty to two hundred and fifty tons. Some of them are pierced for thirty guns, but never mount more than two, and these are the best armed; for most of them have only two pedereroes. They direct the ship by means of a pole strongly fastened to the rudder on the outside, and placed in an inclined situation, not quite horizontally: a rope is fastened at the end, which passes on both sides through blocks fastened to two thick transverse pieces of wood, which are nailed to the two ends of a long and thick beam, placed abaft. The rope, being put through the blocks, is hung or fastened on a peg which stands on that part of the stem where the helm is. On each side three men are placed, who must not leave this rope while the vessel is under sail; and must alter the direction of the helm, when required, by drawing at the rope. These vessels are but ill provided with sailing tackle and trimmings; nor indeed do they require them so complete as in most other voyages, for they never sail without a fair wind, and always keep along the shore. The harbour in which these vessels lie at anchor is from five to eight fathom deep; they are sheltered there by the mountains of Ettaga from the east wind; and when they are forced away by another wind, they run ashore, without any damage, on the neighbouring sandy beach.

The fortifications belonging to the town are very indifferent, since it has no other defence than twenty-two cannons and three culverins, all of which are in so wretched a condition, that they appear as if entirely useless.

The ruins of an old castle, supposed to have been formerly built by the French, are to be seen on an eminence at a small distance from the town.

The Roman emperors and kings of Egypt made many attempts to cut a channel through the isthmus of Suez, and join the two seas together; but all their efforts proved ineffectual. About three miles from the town, there is still to be seen a deep ditch, which runs from north to south, and is supposed to be a relic of that vain and impracticable undertaking.

We shall now proceed to give a description of the principal towns and villages situated up the Nile; and the first we meet with is called Gize, supposed to stand on a part of the ground where the ancient city of Memphis once stood. The town itself is tolerably large, but the houses are very low, mean buildings; and its only ornaments consist of four or five minierets or mosques, and some palm-trees. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in making earthen pots and tiles; but they are so indifferently executed, as to produce but an inconsiderable advantage.

The village of Deir-Etiin, is situated about a mile and a half to the south of Old Cairo; here is a mosque and a Coptis convent. The houses here are almost all built of clay, and covered with reeds. The greatest ornament of this village, as well as most of the others, are the palm-trees, which are cultivated in great abundance. One end of this village is close to the Nile, and the other extends towards the mountains.

The village of Dagjour, is a little distance from the above: it is remarkable for containing in its neighbourhood many spacious mosques and several handsome pyramids.

Benesoef, the next village we come to, is situated on the western shore of the Nile: it is a kind of capital, about one hundred miles distant from Cairo, and the place of residence of a bey, who is the governor of it. There are in it several very large and elegant mosques.

Mount Kobzim, is situated to the north-east of the last mentioned village, at the foot of which stands the convent of

of St. Antony; and at some distance are the mountains of Askar, where are seen the ruins of three monasteries, namely, Deir-Berdet, Deir Bahsta, and Deir Anna.

The convent of St. Paul is not far distant from that of St. Antony. The Coptis call this the Tyger convent, from a supposition that those animals made the tomb of that saint. The principal building is a quadrangle, but much less than that of St. Antony. The church is thirty-two feet long and fourteen broad, and is very light. The walls are ornamented with paintings, and on that part where the altar is fixed are the remains of a Greek inscription, but the characters are illegible. The garden is planted with many fruit-trees, particularly vines; and the friars plant as many kitchen herbs here, as those do who belong to the garden of St. Antony. Here are fourteen monks in this convent, five of whom are priests; two wear the angelic dress, and the rest are lay-brothers. About forty yards from the monastery is a rock which supplies it with a large fountain of water.

Monfalut, is another village, on the same side the Nile with that of Benesoef. It is a sort of capital, whose mosques give it a beautiful appearance; and it is the see of a Coptis bishop. The adjacent country abounds with a variety of fruit trees, and is in general very fertile.

Sionth, another village, contains several handsome mosques, and is the rendezvous of those who go with the caravan that sets out from hence to Nubia. This village is situated about two miles from the river, in a very pleasant part of the country; and a large lake is by the side of it, which is filled from the Nile by a canal, over which there is a bridge of three high Gothic arches. The church is three miles from the village, among a number of hills, in which several grottos are cut. A cashif, who is governor of the province, resides here; and there is a bishop, with about five hundred Christians.

The large village of Aboutiteshe, is situated on the same side of the Nile with Sionth. It is supposed to be the Hypsele of the antients; it is at present a bishop's see, and has some mosques in it.

On the east side, farther up the Nile, is the village of Akmin, which is very large, and adorned with several mosques. Here are the remains of two temples, consisting of stones twenty feet long and ten broad; all of which are painted, and full of hieroglyphical figures. Here is a Greek inscription of four lines on one of the stones; but the first and last lines are almost totally, and the others partly defaced. Here is an hospital belonging to the Congregatio de propaganda Fide; and the Coptis have a convent here.

To the eastward of this village, at the foot of a mountain, is the monastery of St. Senodius. It is built of free stone, and of an oblong quadrangle; it is one hundred and thirty feet long, twenty feet broad, and fifty feet high, and a cornice goes quite round it. Its greatest sides have two rows of twenty-one windows each, all closed up; there are only nine windows in each row, on the other sides: five doors were formerly on the west side, but they are now all closed up, and the entrance to the monastery is by a little double door on the south side, the leaves of which are covered with iron plates. The church is in a very decayed state; but there are still fourteen pillars in it, some of stone, and the rest of bricks, covered with gypsum, and which support the ceiling. The choir, which is preserved, contains three altars, but hath not anything remarkable in it. This convent is inhabited only by three monks, who have very wretched habitations. There is likewise a deep and wide well in it, whose water rises and falls like the Nile, though the convent is above three miles from the river. However, this rising and falling of the water (which the monks and Coptis consider as a miracle wrought by Dioscorus whilst he staid in this monastery) is occasioned by a communication with a canal, whose water is supplied from the Nile, and so provides this well with it.

We come next to the town of Girge, or Tsihirsche, which is the capital of Upper Egypt, and the residence of the bey. It is about a quarter of a mile from the river, and tolerably large, being at least two miles in circumference: the houses are chiefly built of hard brick, and are pretty spacious; and here are several handsome Turkish mosques. It is also the see of a Coptis bishop; and the fathers de propaganda Fide have an hospital here, where they maintain themselves by their practice of physic, that renders them useful to the Turks. When the bey of Girge has any thing to communicate to the chief of the Arabs from the Divan at Cairo, he sends them word that they are

to come to him. They immediately send one of their number with two thousand horsemen to a certain place destined for those interviews: these troops form a ring round the bey, who is attended by a suite of twelve persons only: and each returns to his own home after the interview is over.

On the eastern side of the Nile is the village of Gau, which was once very large, but a considerable part of it has been washed away by the overflowings of that river. Here are fourteen columns, full of hieroglyphics, preserved standing. At some distance from the village are many scattered coffins cut in stone, which the travellers make use of as troughs or cisterns to water their horses at. At the foot of the mountain are many quarries, the stones of which are white, and have a fine polish. There is also a colossal statue of rock stone, but it is greatly disfigured.

The village of Eridy is situated on the same side of the Nile, and about seven miles from Gau: it is the residence of a sheik of the same name. This village is famous throughout Egypt on account of a snake, of which the people relate many strange and miraculous stories; and some of them believe it to be the devil, banished into the mountains of Upper Egypt by the angel Raphael. This serpent is kept by a sheik, and has been in the possession of his predecessors for a long time. Among other strange stories concerning it, they tell us, that the sheik would cut it in pieces at night, and be sure to find it whole and sound the next morning. But notwithstanding the absurd notions the people here entertain of this serpent, it is remarkable that they can handle these reptiles without receiving the least injury, as we are assured by a celebrated writer, who, from the history of his travels while in Egypt, gives us the following account.

"I am now going, says he, to inform you of something which I look upon as very curious; but I assure you the thing is so amazing, that had I not had ocular demonstration of the fact, I would not presume to relate it. One morning, as I was looking for something in our warehouses, I observed in several parts of them, the traces of serpents, which gave me some uneasiness, lest at any time I should be hurt by them. I consulted our druggerman about it, who told me to make myself entirely easy, for he knew an Egyptian who could catch them by a charm. I communicated this to Mr. F. H. who, like me, wanted faith to believe that any mortal had this power. The druggerman sent for the man; and as I suspected he might bring tame serpents with him, and privately let them loose, and then catch them again in our presence; I proposed that the charmer, before he began, should be stript to his skin; which was agreed to be done. We led him into the court yard where the warehouses stood; but before he went into either of them, he fixed his eyes towards the sky, and muttered something unintelligible to us; this done, he went into one of the warehouses, and with a short and slender stick of a date-tree, he had in his hand, he pointed to the roof, and uttered something with a loud voice, at the same time stamping hard on the ground: as soon as he had done this, he told us, there had been serpents there, but they were gone. He then went into another warehouse, and, after doing the same as he had done in the first, he said, there was a serpent somewhere in the walls; which were of loose stones, very thick, and much decayed. Here he repeated his charm; and presently a very large serpent came out of the wall, and stopped; but the charmer, who stood in the middle of the warehouse, uttered some more jargon with very great vehemence, and the serpent came to his feet; he took it up in his hand as unconcerned as though it had been only an eel. In the same manner he caught another among some ruins in the yard. We examined the serpents, and found they had their teeth; for I assure you, Sir, we were so much amazed, that we could hardly believe our eyes. We gave him thirty paras for his trouble, and he went away quite satisfied." The above relation is corroborated by the testimony of the learned Dr. Hasselquist, who also travelled into Egypt, and tells us, that they take up the most poisonous vipers with their bare hands, play with them, put them in their bosoms, and use a great many more tricks with them; and that he had frequently seen them handle vipers that were three or four feet long, and of the most horrid sort. He adds hereto, "I inquired and examined whether they had cut out the vipers poisonous teeth; but I have with my own eyes seen they do not: we may therefore conclude that there are to this day pili (that is, persons who are capable of fascinating or taming serpents) in Egypt; but what art they used, is not easily known."

known. Some people are very superstitious, and the generality believe this to be done by some supernatural power, which they obtain from invisible beings. I do not know whether their power is to be ascribed to good or evil; but I am persuaded that they who understand it use many superstitions." The doctor then gives an instance of a woman who handled these noxious creatures with the greatest familiarity, and without the least harm happening to her, to the great consternation of himself and his friends. But we shall have occasion hereafter to speak more particularly of this miraculous serpent, and detect the fraud practised with it, when we describe the tomb of the pretended Turkish saint.

Near the village of Eridy, in the mountains, are ten or twelve sepulchral caverns. There are also many heaps of ruins, which are the remains of the antient town of Irgy, according to the report of the Coptis.

Here is a small village called Dandera, which is very pleasantly situated, it being encompassed by continued rows of trees, which produce all the various fruits to be met with in Egypt. Nagadi is a large town, and, among other edifices, contains several spacious mosques; and a Coptic bishop constantly resides here. Carnac, is a name given to a vast, extensive country to the east of the Nile, where some considerable ruins of buildings, that were once spacious and magnificent, are seen in various places. Esnay is higher up the river, and is a large place, adorned with a very handsome mosque. It is the residence of an Arab sheik, and is situated where the antient Latopolis stood, some remains of which are still to be seen. Edfa or Edfou, is the antient Apollinopolis, and is situated on the western side of the Nile. Here is a fine monument of antiquity, which has been long converted by the Turks into a citadel.

The town of Esbouan is likewise situated on the western side of the Nile, and is the antient Seyne, which was under the tropic of Cancer. It is a poor and small place, with a sort of fortress or rather barrack for janissaries, under their governor, who has the command of the country. In this town, as also in an island adjoining, are quarries of granite, and the remains of some antient buildings. The first cataract of the Nile begins here, above which is the island of Giesret Ell Heiff, the Philæ of the antients, which is a desert, and quite covered with rocks of granite. The borders of this island are cut in the form of a walk on the rock; and there are abundance of colonades, buildings, and other magnificent and venerable antiquities within it.

The ruins of several grand edifices are to be seen at Deboni, as also at Hindau, Sahdaob, and Taffa, where Nubia begins, and Egypt ends. From thence up to Derri are many small villages, in some of which several ruins of antiquity are to be seen.

The town of Derri is situated on the eastern shore of the Nile, near the place where the river begins to direct its course towards the west. It is inhabited by a race of people called Barbarins, who are a poor and miserable tribe, and live chiefly by plunder. The slope of the shore of the Nile here is in many places covered with lupines and radishes, the seed of which they make oil from. The people of Derri frequently cross the Nile, in order to go to Esbouan; but as they have no canoes, they supply the want of them in the manner described in a former section; besides which they have the following: they put themselves a straddle upon a great piece of wood, after having placed their cloaths upon their heads in form of a turban. They also fasten to it their assagaye or dart; they afterwards make use of their arms as oars. By these methods they cross the river without any danger from the crocodiles, or much difficulty or hazard to themselves.

SECTION IV.

Treating of the Language, Arts, Trade and Commerce, Manufactures, Weights, Coins, Diseases, &c. of the EGYPTIANS.

THE most antient language spoken in Egypt, that we have any account of, was the Coptic, which was generally used till Alexander the Great conquered this country, when he introduced the Greek, which for above nine hundred years afterwards, was the language most in use, and which prevailed till the Greeks were expelled by the Arabs; since which, the most universal has been the vulgar Arabic, or Arbesk language. It is true, the Turkish, Coptic, and modern Greek, are still spoken, but not so universally as the Arabic language.

The liberal or ingenious arts are principally in the hands

of the Franks or Christians, the genius of the Turks tending more to traffic. The Christians only are silversmiths and jewellers; and these have a pretty brisk trade, on account of the great demand for trinkets and trappings to adorn women and horses; for the Mahometans are not allowed to keep plate in their houses, nor are the men permitted to wear rings, unless they give a tenth part of what they are worth to the poor; and few of them are so fond of ornament as to purchase the privilege of appearing fine at so great an expence. The Turks of Constantinople far surpass those who reside here in every branch of work they attempt to execute.

The inhabitants in many of the villages on the banks of the Nile, are chiefly employed in making sal ammoniac. This salt, it seems, is procured from the foot which arises from the burnt dung of animals that feed only on vegetables; but the dung of these animals is only fit to be burnt for that purpose during the first four months of the year, when they feed on fresh spring grass, which in Egypt is a kind of trefoil or clover; for when they feed only on dry meat, it will be ineffectual. The dung of oxen, buffaloes, sheep, goats, horses, and asses, at the proper time, is as fit for this purpose as camels dung. The foot arising from the dung is put into glass vessels, and these vessels into an oven or kiln, which is heated by degrees, and at last with a very strong fire for three successive nights and days; after which, the smoke first shews itself, and in a short time the salt appears, adhering to the glasses, and covers the whole opening by degrees. They break the glasses, and take out the salt in the same form and state in which we receive it.

Their domestic trade chiefly consists in supplying the lower parts of Egypt, from the Upper, with corn, pulse of all sorts, dates, &c. and supplying the upper parts from Delta with rice, salt, &c. Cairo is the general mart for all things imported into Egypt; but Indian linens, muslins, callicoes, china-ware, &c. being brought the principal part of the way by land, bear a greater price here than in England.

The Turks prohibit the exportation of coffee and rice from Egypt, to any parts not under their government; however, great quantities of both are smuggled to many places. Flax is sent to all parts of Turkey and Leghorn, and cotton is transported in great quantities to Marseilles. Senna, cassia, colocintida, and a red dye called saffianoum, are exported from hence to several European countries.

The Egyptians import English, French, and Venetian cloths, silk from Leghorn and Venice, likewise drugs and dyes which Egypt does not produce: also coral and amber from various parts, raw silk from Syria, wool from Barbary, carpets from Asia Minor, iron from Salonica, furs and copper utensils from Constantinople, small wares from France and Venice, lead and marble blocks from Italy, and tin from England. Besides the above, they import and export to and from different places the following articles; namely: their imports are, Brasil wood, cochineal, cinna-bar, vermilion, vitriol, quicksilver, antimony, orpiment, arunic, and agaric; and their exports are, sal ammoniac, saffron, tamarinds, cinnamon, sugar, indigo, opium, &c.

Linens are the principal manufactures of Egypt, which are not consumed at home, great quantities of these being sent to Turkey, France, Algiers, Italy, and other parts. Linen, woollen, and silk, are the three chief manufactures here. The silk is worked into large pieces for women's veils, and of some are made rich handkerchiefs worked with gold: many sattinets and taffeties are made in Cairo, but both are inferior to those of India; the wool is manufactured into carpets of different colours and sizes, and various kinds of garments. The linen is made from flax which principally grows in the Delta: the threads are drawn from the distaff by letting the spindle hang down without being spun. The linen, however, when made, is not very fine, which seems to be principally owing to there not being a great demand for it in Egypt, as people of distinction wear a kind of fine light muslin, which seems better adapted to so hot a climate. The chief place for making the linen is at Rosetta, which is in general cheap and white.

At Cairo, red leather is made, and a better sort is prepared at Alexandria; yet the latter is far inferior to that which is made in Morocco. Pebbles are here finely polished for snuff boxes, handles for knives, &c. They are done by a wheel, like jewellery-work, and are not to be rivalled any where.

A gentleman who resided many years at Grand Cairo, and belonging to the factory there, has favoured us with the

the following account of the trade carried on by the English at this place :

" The goods we have to sell here, says he, are consigned to us by some eminent Turkey merchants in London. The principal articles are, woollens, lead, lead ore, tin, fire-arms, cutlery, hard-ware, optics, bob and chime clocks, also watches, made in a particular manner for the Turkey trade. We sell our goods to some for ready money, and we barter with others for some of the following articles, viz. cocculus indicus, assafoetida, sal ammoniac, aloes, myrrh, frankincense, sagapenum, gum tragacanth, gum arabic, gum elemy, salafra, coffee, and other commodities.

" On our first settling here, and selling goods to the Mahometans, they would sometimes bring them back, after having kept them a week, complain of defects when there were none, and insist on having the money returned ; but we were soon after instructed in what manner to deal with them. When we sell any thing now to a Mahometan, as soon as the price is agreed on, which we will suppose is two hundred zermahoop chequins, we call in two Mahometans as witnesses, and then take a handful of dirt, and put it upon the goods, saying at the same time, " We sell you this dirt for two hundred zermahoop chequins : " if he replies, " I buy this dirt for two hundred zermahoop chequins," the bargain will then be like the laws of the Medes and Persians, which alter not. Perhaps custom only has established this method ; but be that as it may, the goods are never afterwards returned on our hands. When we have gum arabic, frankincense, myrrh, or cocculus indicus, to send to Christendom, we always take care to have it garbelled first ; but we, and all other Franks here, are obliged to employ a set of men called Garbellers, and no other, as this privilege is yearly purchased of the basha for a certain sum.

" Those merchants who consign goods to Cairo, should be very careful to see them well and securely packed or embalmed. We had thirty barrels of tin in rods consigned to us by a merchant in London ; it came very safe to Alexandria, and was there unshipped and put on board some vessels for this place. In their passage up the Nile, the excessive heat of the sun had such an effect on the barrels, as to cause some of them to fall intirely to pieces, others lost their hoops, and some their heads ; which gave the poor pilfering sailors, who work these vessels, a fine opportunity of making a penny ; which when the goods arrived at Boulac, we find they had not neglected ; for out of every barrel damaged, they had taken some pounds weight of tin, and sold it at different villages on the banks of the Nile. I would advise merchants who send goods to Cairo, not to have it put up in barrels, but in strong cases made of elm or oak, to the length of the rods, and have them well nailed up ; were this done, there would scarce be a probability of an ounce being lost ; for I never heard of Nile sailors forcing any packages open. Woollens should be embalmed as tight as possible, with a tarpaulin under the outside canvas ; for at the mouth of the Nile is a boughas, or mud-bank, on which sometimes the germs run foul ; but cloth packed up in the manner I describe, may, in case of this accident, be got without damage into another germ.

It is usual to pack up gold and silver stuffs in stout waxed cloth, and then put them in a strong case. In and near Cairo, they make oil of the seeds of safflowers and sell the greaves at twenty-six paras the quintal of five hundred rotolos ; these greaves are used by the poor people for food. In Upper Egypt there are many plantations of sugar-canes ; the sugar and molasses made there are sent to a kan near Boulac for sale ; the molasses are put into the skins of oxen, heifers, calves, and other animals, which appear like so many dead beasts, when quite full.

Brokers, who are most of them Jews, conduct the chief part of the business : these will buy or sell for their employers, no matter how, so that they get the brokerage. A native of Aleppo, who kept a shop in this city, sold many pikes of woollen cloth, to a great Turk, for the cloathing of his servants, and to be given to the poor ; and a few days after being desired by the Turk to bring in his bill, replied, that, through the hurry of business, he had forgot to enter that transaction in his book ; that, he perfectly remembered the rate per pike agreed on, but as to the number of pikes, he was totally at a loss. The Turk desired him to guess as near as he could ; and the shop-keeper, suddenly recollecting himself, asked the Turk if he had the listing of the cloth by him ; and was answered in the affirmative ; then said he, we can soon settle the matter by measuring that, which must be the same as the length of the cloth. The listing was mea-

sured, and the shopkeeper was paid for as many pikes of cloth ; but he grossly imposed on the Turk ; for it was evident he made him pay twice as much as he ought, as all woollen cloth has two listings. The baseness of this transaction was a few days after explained to the Turk ; but the Aleppo knave had a friend who warned him of his danger, and advised him to decamp, which he immediately did.

We pack the drugs, &c. for Christendom in large square baskets made of date-tree wood, which are called coffasses ; we line them with coarse blue linen, and cover them with skins of beasts. During the Turkish lent, month, or moon Ramazan, we sell more woollens than at any other time ; for then the Turks, against the feast of Bairam, purchase great quantities for the new cloathing of themselves and servants.

They make use of the following weights in Egypt ; viz. A grain is the first and least, four of which is a killat. Sixteen killats is a dram, of which all the Egyptian weights are compounded. One dram and a half is a mettigal, by which gold and silver lace is weighed. One hundred and forty-four drams is a rotolo, and is equal to one pound, four ounces, one dram, and eight-elevenths. Four hundred drams is an oke, by which weight shopkeepers sell pepper, sugar and other goods.

The quintals in Egypt are, one of thirty-six okes, others of one hundred and ten, one hundred and thirty three, one hundred and fifty, and one hundred and fifty-five rotolos. One pound avoirdupois is equal to one hundred and forty-two drams, twelve-fourteenths. One hundred weight to forty okes. One oke to two pounds, twelve ounces, four fifths. One hundred okes to two hundred and eighty pounds.

The coins current in Egypt are, burbers, medines, and sequins. The burber is a copper piece of money about as big as a six-pence, twelve of which make a medine, which is a piece of iron silvered over, and about the size of a silver three-pence. The sequin is of two sorts ; the one, called a fundulee, is of the value of one hundred and forty-six medines ; the other, called a zermahoop, is worth one hundred and ten medines. Aspers, though not coined in Egypt, are taken here, three going to a medine. Barbary sequins and Spanish pieces likewise go here. In speaking of great sums, the inhabitants of Egypt always reckon by purses, a purse being twenty-five thousand medines, or one hundred and twenty pounds sterling.

The Turks begin their month which is lunar, at the time the moon first appears. The coptis month is thirty days : and every year they have five intercalary days, and every fourth year six. Their era begins three hundred and two years after Christ, from the martyrdom of the saints in Egypt, in the reign of the emperor Dioclesian.

Caravans come from Tunis and Algiers to Cairo ; besides, there is one of the Barberines, from Sennar, who bring the goods of Ethiopia, and of several parts of Africa, as black slaves, gold dust, elephants teeth, gums, ostrich-feathers, musk, ambergris, and ebony. One great caravan that arrives at Cairo, consists of those blacks who come from the country near the Isle of Pheasants, and pass through Fez, Morocco, and Tripoli, being about eight months on their journey, and chiefly bring gold-dust.

The principal inconveniencies and distempers people are subject to in this country, are, first, excessive heat, so intolerable, that a man knows not how to set about any business ; and in the summer nights there is no sleeping quietly for musketoes, or gnats ; there are always swarms of them buzzing about ; the best remedy against them is to have a fine cloth tacked close round the bed, but some of them will get in and torment a person notwithstanding. Another inconvenience is the sand, which insinuates itself every where, insomuch that you will find the bed-clothes full of it, and as hot as if they had been warmed with a pan of coals.

A pain in the stomach foreigners especially are very subject to, which proceeds from their going open breasted, which chills their bowels, and causes dangerous fevers and fluxes, especially in autumn, when the river overflows the country.

Another distemper which reigns here is the swelling of the scrotum ; and sore eyes are almost universal in summer time, occasioned by the scorching heat reflected from the sand, and the dust itself, which is very subtle and salt, and pernicious to the sight. Our author relates, that a French merchant of his acquaintance lost his sight by it, as many of the country people do ; and others were so afflicted with it, that they were in the extremest torture, crying out night and day, for a fortnight or three weeks together, and could

get no sleep. You will hardly see any body abroad, in summer time, that is perfectly free from this distemper, and most of them with little slips of blue stuff hanging over their eyes. M. Thevenot says, he escaped sore eyes himself, which he imputes to his washing them frequently with cold water.

The swelling of the legs, attended with sharp pains, is another inconvenience many people suffer at Cairo, and when the water of the Nile begins to rise, there are few people but are troubled with an inflammation, which runs over the whole body, and when they drink they feel sharp pricking pains all over them, as if a hundred needles were run into them at once.

The plague generally visits them once in seven years, during which time it is observed to take a tour round the Ottoman empire, but is sometimes at Cairo two years together. All diseases are more fatal in Egypt during the Hamchin, or hot winds, than at any other time, and they generally begin about the seventh of April, and last fifty days. They bring abundance of sand into the town, which gets into the chambers, trunks, and boxes, let them be never so close; and many of the people, who travel with the caravans at this time of the year, perish by these winds. As soon as the hot winds cease, and the dews begin to fall, by some, or, as others say, when the Nile begins to rise, all distempers, even the plague itself, ceases to be mortal; so that this noble river constantly brings health and plenty with it, when it overflows the country, and may well be the cause of that annual joy they express on its rising to a certain height.

As for physicians or remedies, the Mahometans in Egypt scarce use any, adhering immoveably to their doctrine of fate; and, therefore, when the plague is in a family, they visit their neighbours as at other times, and do not scruple to wear the clothes of a man that died of it.

S E C T. V.

Containing a Description of the EGYPTIAN Pyramids, Catacombs, and Mummies, &c.

NEAR Cairo we meet with those extraordinary monuments, the pyramids, which were formerly ranked among the seven wonders of the world, and cannot now be viewed without admiration. These are situated upon the solid rock, at the foot of the high mountains that accompany the Nile in its course, and separate Egypt from Libya. Their architecture, both on the inside and without, is extremely different with respect to distribution, materials, and grandeur. Some of these are open, others are ruined, and most of them are inclosed; but all have been injured by time. The immense quantity of materials used in constructing them renders it impossible for them all to have been built at the same time, and those that were last erected greatly exceed the first in magnificence.

These pyramids are the works of the remotest antiquity, and even more early than the times of the most ancient historians whose writings have been transmitted to us, the very epocha of their beginning being lost at the time when the first Greek philosophers travelled into Egypt. It is not improbable that the invention of pyramids was owing to the ignorance of the people in having no other method of covering a great circumference, before the art of arching and employing columns to support a roof were invented. It is indeed a mortifying consideration, that the most durable works in architecture have been owing to ignorance. Thus the famous aqueducts of the antients, the remains of which are the wonder and admiration of the present times, were owing to their not knowing that water would rise up nearly to the same height as its source.

It is the opinion of the common people, that the pyramids, the vast palaces, and the temples, whose remains fill the spectators with amazement, were built by giants; and, indeed, it has been supposed, that men some thousand years ago were much larger than at present; but these opinions are fully confuted by the height of the entrances of the caves from whence they have taken stones for these purposes, by the narrowness of the passages of the pyramids, and by the height of the doors of the most ancient structures.

As the principal pyramids, being situated three or four leagues to the west of Cairo, near the place where the city of Memphis is supposed to have stood, they are commonly called, The pyramids of Memphis. They stand on a rocky plain, eighty feet perpendicular above the level of the

ground overflowed by the Nile; and it appears that this rock, not being every-where level, has been smoothed by the chisel. It is remarkable, that this rock is almost covered by the flying sand brought by the wind from the adjacent mountains; and that in this sand are a great number of shells, and those of oysters petrified, which is the more surprising, as this plain of solid rock is never overflowed by the Nile, which, besides, has no shell-fish throughout its whole course. Here are also found the beautiful flint-stones which, on account of the singularity of their colours, are thought much more valuable than agate, and of which the people of Cairo make handles for knives, and snuff-boxes.

Four of the pyramids more particularly deserve the attention of the curious; besides these, there are seven or eight others, but these last are not to be compared with the former, especially as they are in a very ruinous condition. The four principal are nearly upon the same diagonal line, at about four hundred paces distant from each other; and their faces exactly correspond to the four cardinal points.

The two most northerly are the largest; and Mr. Greaves, who measured the bottom of the first, found that it was exactly six hundred and ninety-three English feet square, and that its perpendicular height is five hundred feet; but if it be taken as the pyramid ascends inclining, then the height is equal to the breadth of the base.

It may be proper here to observe, that the square of Lincoln's-inn-fields is said to have been formed by Inigo Jones of the size of this pyramid, which if placed in that square, would on all sides reach to the houses. This pyramid is ascended on the outside by steps, which run round the pyramid; the number of them has, however, been very differently related; but they are between two hundred and seven and two hundred and twelve in number, and from two feet and a half to four feet high, and are broad in proportion to their height.

The external part of the pyramid is chiefly built of great square stones, cut from the rock which extends along the Nile, where to this day may be seen the caves from whence they were taken. The size of the stones is unequal: but they have all the figure of a prism, that they may lie perfectly close. The architect has only observed the pyramidal figure, without troubling himself about the regularity of the steps; and it appears that the inequality of the stones, which differ four, five, and even ten inches, is the reason why so many travellers who have counted them, always differ with respect to number. These kinds of steps were not designed for ascending and descending, and therefore regularity was no farther sought than was necessary for the general shape of the pyramid and the facility of the work. It appears that the external lays are solely compacted by the weight of the stones, without mortar, lead, or cramps of any metal; but in the body of the pyramid they have used a mortar composed of lime, earth, and clay. At its four corners it is easily perceived that the lower stones are placed on the rock, without any other foundation; but beyond them, quite to the middle of each face, the wind has formed a slope of sand, which on the north side rises so high as to afford a commodious ascent to the entrance of the pyramid, which is about forty-eight feet in height.

When you ascend to the entrance, you discharge a pistol to frighten away the bats, and then two Arabs, whom you are obliged to have for your attendants, enter and remove the sand, which almost stops up the passage. You then strip yourself to your shirt, on account of the excessive heat constantly felt in the pyramid, and in this condition enter the passage, each of the company having a wax candle in his hand; for the torches are not lighted till you are in the chambers, for fear of causing too much smoke. This passage runs downwards ninety-two feet and a half, and is very steep; but at the farther end of it is an opening so small, that it is barely a foot and a half high, and two feet in breadth; yet through this hole you are obliged to pass; but the traveller, instead of creeping, commonly lays himself down, and each of the two Arabs that went before take one of his legs, and thus drag him over the sand and dust through the passage.

After having passed this strait, which is luckily no more than two ells long, you enter a pretty large place, where travellers commonly take some refreshment to give them courage to proceed farther.

All these passages, except the fourth, are three feet and a half square, and lined on the four sides by great blocks of white marble, so polished, that this, with the acclivity

of the way, would render them impassable, were it not for little holes cut for resting the feet in. It costs great trouble to advance forward, and if you make a false step, you will slide backwards to the place from whence you set out; but by observing these holes you proceed commodiously enough, though you must stoop till you come to the end of the second passage, which is a hundred and ten feet in length: you then come to a resting-place, on the right hand of which is an opening into a kind of well, in which nothing is to be found but bats that are upwards of a foot long.

The third passage, begins at this resting place: it is a hundred and twenty-four feet in length, and runs horizontally in a straight line to the inferior chamber. The height of this gallery is twenty-six feet, and the breadth six, with benches on each side of polished stone. Before the chamber are some stones with which the way is embarrassed; but having surmounted this difficulty, you enter a chamber which is also covered with stones. This chamber is lined with granite, finely polished; but at present extremely black with the smoke of the torches used in examining its various parts.

After visiting the lower chamber, you return to the resting-place, and ascend upwards by fastening your feet as before, till coming to the end of the fourth gallery you meet with a little platform. You must then begin to climb again, but soon finding a new opening, where you may stand upright, you contemplate a little room, which is at first no more than a palm's breadth larger than the galleries, but afterwards enlarges itself on both sides; and at length, stooping for the last time, you pass the remainder of the fifth gallery, that leads in a horizontal line to the upper chamber. This is a very noble room in the center of the pyramid, at an equal distance from all the sides, and almost exactly between the basis and the top. The floor, sides, and roof, are all formed of vast blocks of granite marble. There are but six ranges of stone from the bottom to the top; and those which cover it are of a stupendous height, like so many huge beams lying flat, and traversing the room, nine of them forming the ceiling. This hall is something more than thirty-four feet in length; it is seventeen feet broad, and nineteen feet and a half in height.

On the left side is what is generally supposed to be a coffin, formed of one entire piece of granite marble, and uncovered at the top; and on being struck with a key, sounds like a bell. This is said to be the tomb of Cheops, king of Egypt, whom Diodorus calls Chemnis. Its form is like that of an altar, hollowed within, and the stone is smooth and plain without any relief. The exterior surface contains seven feet three inches and an half in length, three feet, three inches, and three quarters in depth, and as much in breadth. The hollow part within is little more than six feet long, and two feet broad. It is common for people to discharge a pistol in this room, which makes a noise resembling thunder. Persons go out by the same way they entered; and the traveller has no sooner quitted the pyramid, than he wraps himself up warm, and drinks a glass of some spirituous liquor, to preserve himself from a pleurisy, occasioned by the sudden transition from an extremely hot to a temperate air.

When the person has regained his natural heat, he ascends the pyramid, in order to enjoy a delightful prospect of the surrounding country. The way to ascend it is by the north-east corner; and when the steps are high, or are broken, the person must search for a convenient place where the steps are entire, or a high step is mouldered, so as to facilitate the ascent. The top does not end in a point, but in a little flat or square, consisting of nine stones, besides two at the angles that are wanting. Abundance of people, who have visited the pyramid at different times, and were willing to transmit to posterity the memorial of their being here, have inscribed their names on the top, in the entrance, and in the chambers of it.

It has been affirmed by several travellers, that a man who stands on the top of this pyramid, could not shoot an arrow farther than the bottom, but it must necessarily fall upon the steps; however, it is very certain, that a good bow and a strong arm will send an arrow beyond them. There is as little justice in the remark, that these pyramids cast no shadows. In summer-time, it is true, and for near three quarters of a year, the pyramids cast no shadows at noon; but every morning and evening in the year, and at noon in winter, they certainly cast a shadow proportionable to their bulk; and Thales, the Miletian, according to Pliny and Laertius, took the height of these pillars by their shadows about two thousand years ago.

The second pyramid appears on approaching it, even

higher than the first, which is owing to its being placed in a more elevated situation, for they are in other respects both of the same size, only the second is so well closed, that there is not the least sign of its ever having been opened; and it is coated on the four sides with granite, so well joined and polished, that the ascending it would scarcely be attempted by the boldest man living. On the north and west sides are two very stately and celebrated pieces of architecture, about thirty feet deep, and one thousand four hundred feet long, cut out of the rock in a perpendicular, and squared with the chissel; which, it is supposed, were designed as lodgings for the Egyptian priests.

The ruins of a temple are to be seen on the eastern side of this pyramid, the stones of which are six feet broad, and as many deep, most of them sixteen or seventeen, and some twenty-two feet in length. The whole building was an hundred and sixty feet in depth, and an hundred and eighty in front.

At a small distance from these pyramids, and about a quarter of a mile from the river, is a monstrous figure, called a sphinx, the face of which represents that of a beautiful woman, and the body that of a lion. This extraordinary figure is said to have been the sepulchre of king Amasis. It is of one entire stone, smooth and polished, and was cut out of the solid rock; and Dr. Pococke observes, that what some have thought joinings of the stones, are only veins of the rock. The lower part of the neck, or beginning of the breast, is thirty-three feet wide, and twenty thick to the back; and thence to a large hole in the back seventy-three feet, and from thence to the tail thirty feet. Besides the above mentioned hole in the back, there is another on the top of the head, by which it is conjectured the priests entered to deliver their oracles. The sand is raised about it to such a height, that the top of the back can only be seen. Some people have taken great pains to break off part of the nose of this figure, and thereby very much disfigured this celebrated monument of antiquity.

The third pyramid is situated on a rising ground, about two hundred yards from the second, and is said to have been built by Mycherinus, the son of Cheops, and successor of Cephrenes. It is closed like the second, and is without any coating. It measures about three hundred feet on every side, and, though less than the other two, is said greatly to excel them in the beauty of its workmanship. On the outside of this pyramid was likewise a temple, which was also composed of stones of a prodigious size, and is more distinguishable in its ruins than the other.

The next pyramid to be mentioned, which is the fourth, is an hundred feet less than the third, and also without coating; it is closed, and resembles the others, but had no temple: it has however, one singularity, which is, its summit being terminated by a single stone that is very large, and seems to have served as a pedestal. It is situated a little more to the west, and out of the line of the others. These four great pyramids are surrounded by others that are smaller, which are in a very ruinous condition, and have been for the most part opened.

The pyramids of Soccotra, so called from a mean village of that name, are at near ten miles distance from those last mentioned. These extend from north to south, and are situated at the foot of the mountains, in a plain that seems formed by nature, for the use to which it is applied, it not being of great extent, but so high that it is never overflowed by the Nile; and there is great reason to believe that the celebrated city of Memphis extended almost to this spot.

The pyramid, among these, which rises above the rest, is called the great pyramid to the north. On measuring this structure, it was found that the east side extended six hundred and ninety feet, and the north side seven hundred and ten. The perpendicular height is three hundred and forty-five feet. It has one hundred and fifty-six steps from two to three feet in height, and is built of the same kind of free-stone as the others, but was cased with a fine hard-stone, which is still remaining in several parts of the structure, though a great deal has fallen down. About one-third of the way up is an entrance three feet five inches wide, and four feet two inches deep. The stones within are of the height and breadth of the entrance, and about five feet in length. Mr. Norden and his companions entered this passage, which is steep, and has also holes cut as rests for the feet. Having passed through it, they entered a room twenty-two feet and a half long, and eleven feet ten inches wide. At the height of ten feet six inches a range of stones project five inches inwards on each side, and

and in the same manner twelve tires project one farther than the other till they meet at the top. To the west of this room is another that resembles it: these rooms are formed of smooth white stones, so large, that there are only three or four of them in breadth, and seven of them in length.

There is another, at the distance of a mile to the south-east, called the great pyramid to the south, which at the bottom is about six hundred feet square. It is built within of good hewn stone, and seems to have been cased all the way up.

About two miles to the east of the last great pyramid, and on a lower ground, is one built of unburnt brick, which seems to have been made of the mud of the Nile, it being a sandy black clay, with some pebbles and shells in it, and mixed up with chopped straw, in order to bind the clay together, as unburnt bricks are at present usually made in Egypt and other parts of the east. Some of these bricks are thirteen inches and a half long, six inches and a half broad, and four inches thick; but others were fifteen inches long, seven broad, and four inches three quarters in thickness, but were not laid so as to bind each other. This pyramid extends two hundred and ten feet on the west side, and is one hundred and fifty feet high; and at the top is forty-three feet by thirty-five. It seems to have been built with five degrees, each being ten feet broad, and thirty deep, yet the ascent is easy on account of the bricks having crumbled away through length of time.

These pyramids are supposed by many, to have been built by the Israelites, which is confirmed by Josephus, who says, that when time had extinguished the memory of the benefits of Joseph, and the kingdom was transferred to another family, they used the Israelites with great rigour, wasting them by several labours. They were ordered to cut canals for the river Nile, to raise walls and cast up banks to hinder the inundation of that river, and that they oppressed them also with erecting those fabricks of the pyramids, and compelling them to learn many mechanical arts. But Mr. Greaves thinks it a sufficient confutation of this account, that the pyramids are built of stone, and not of brick, in making whereof the Israelites were employed. But though the Israelites might, a little before their departure from Egypt, be employed in making bricks, methinks it does by no means follow, that they were not employed in any other works. And when is it more likely that the Egyptian kings should undertake these vast structures, than when they had so many hundred thousand slaves in their dominions, whom they seemed under a necessity of employing constantly in such works as these to prevent an insurrection? besides, it has some weight with me, that this was the general opinion, so long since as Josephus wrote, for had it been much later, the time of their being erected would not, in that age, have been so difficult to discover.

The time when these pyramids were built is not less uncertain than the founders names; for nothing can be more precarious than the Egyptian chronology, where we find a succession of kings for fifty thousand years; and they pretend to enumerate no less than three hundred and thirty kings, who reigned before king Moeris. Mr. Greaves has taken an infinite deal of pains to ascertain the time of their erection, and concludes at length, that they were built between the time of the Israelites going out of Egypt, and the building of Solomon's temple, being a space of four hundred and eighty years. But we cannot help inclining still to believe that they were built by the Israelites, whom the kings of Egypt employed in these stupendous works, on a politic account, rather than for any ostentation of their power and grandeur, as some writers imagine: not but that there might be some other inducements to the erecting them, besides the keeping a mutinous people in action, who, upon the least respite from their labours seemed ready to break out into rebellion. That they were actually employed in laborious works, we have the best authority we can have, both from sacred and profane writers. And as there were no less than six hundred thousand of these labourers, besides women and children, as it appears there were at their leaving Egypt, when can we assign a proper time for erecting these vast structures, than when they dwelt in this kingdom? their being employed in general in preparing materials for building, by the kings of Egypt, of which we have such undoubted testimonies, carries a much stronger presumption that they were employed in the erecting these fabrics, than the account of their making bricks does, that they were never concerned in any other work, but brick-making. Besides a less body of men than

the Israelites were, would have made but a slow progress in such mighty buildings: and the reason the dimensions of the Egyptian pyramids exceed any other structures that ever were in the world is, because never any other prince employed so prodigious a number of labourers, or had equal reason for doing it. Another reason why we are inclined to believe they are as antient as the time of the Israelites being in Egypt is, that no profane author is able to assign the time of their erection; but we leave every man to his own conjectures.

Many persons have thought that the pyramids were erected as sepulchres for the kings of Egypt; but if this was the case, they would surely have provided a better entrance, and not made it necessary to drag the corpse through long, narrow, and intricate passages before it could be placed in its tomb: and it seems improbable that in the first pyramid eleven acres of ground should be covered with blocks of solid stone for so great a height, merely for the sake of a room or two of no extraordinary size, in which a coffin was to stand. Dr. Shaw is of the same opinion, that the great chest of granite marble found in the upper chamber of the pyramid, was probably intended for some religious use, it being of a different form from the stone coffins found in Egypt, which are constantly adorned with sacred characters, and made with a kind of pedestal at the feet; for the mummies always stand upright, where time or accident have not disturbed them; but this chest lies flat upon the floor, and consequently wants that dignity of posture, which, says Dr. Shaw, we may suppose this wise nation knew to be peculiar, and therefore would be very scrupulous of denying, to the human body. Upon the whole, then, in so symbolical a religion as that of the antient Egyptians, it is not improbable that the pyramidal form might convey some sacred meaning; and perhaps the pyramids themselves might be objects representing the deity, and to which they offered their adorations; just as the Paphian Venus was, according to Tacitus, not of a human, but of a pyramidal form; as is also the black stone worshipped by the Gentoos of India, under the name of Jaggernaut.

We shall now proceed to give an account of the catacombs, or mummy-pits, and Egyptian mummies, which are to be seen in the same plain in which these last pyramids are placed, the entrance into which is by a kind of wells, about four feet square, and twenty feet deep, cut through a stony rock, covered with sand, which being moved by the wind, sometimes fills up these entrances. However, some of them are cased as far as the depth of the sand with large unburnt bricks. People are usually let down with ropes, when being got to the bottom, they find a passage five feet wide, and about fifty feet in length, filled up very high with sand, and having got to the end of it turn down another passage to the left hand about six feet high, on one side of which are little rooms, with benches about two feet above the floor, and on the other side are narrow cells just big enough to receive a large coffin. At the end of this alley is another, which is narrower, and on each side are niches that seem designed for coffins placed upright. This passage leads to rooms in the form of an oblong square, filled with the remains of mummies. Our author observes, that here the inferior persons of a family were probably deposited, while the heads of the families were placed in the niches. Each family had originally, perhaps, its burial-place; and as the family increased, they branched out these sepulchral grottos, that every descendant might have a separate place for their remains.

There are found in these catacombs the reliques of embalmed bodies, swathes scattered up and down, and sometimes coffins standing upright and entire, made of sycamore or Pharaoh's fig-tree, that have continued in these subterraneous apartments above three thousand years, though the wood is to appearance spongy and porous. The upper part of the coffin is commonly shaped like a head, with a face painted upon it; the rest is a continued trunk, and the end for the feet is made broad and flat for it to stand upright in the repository. Other coffins are made of stone, and they are generally adorned with carved work representing hieroglyphical figures of various animals.

On opening the coffins the bodies appear wrapped up in a linen shroud, upon which are fastened several linen scrolls painted with hieroglyphic characters. These scrolls commonly run down the belly and sides, or are fixed on the knees and legs. On a kind of linen headpiece, which covers the face, the countenance of the person is represented in gold, or painted: but these paintings are very much decayed by time. The whole body is swathed by fillets or narrow bandages of linen wrapped round in so

curious

curious a manner, with so many windings and so often upon each other, that it is supposed a corpse has seldom less than a thousand ells of filletting. Those especially about the head and face are laid on with such surprising neatness, that there may be plainly perceived something of the shape of the eyes and mouth.

The learned and ingenious Dr. Pococke brought a mummy to England, which was in a coffin made of wood, the seams of which were filled up with linen and fine plaster. Four folds of cloth were over the head, and the upper one painted blue. Beneath these was a composition about half an inch thick of gum and cloth burnt by the heat of the things applied to it, and over the skin was a coat of gum, or bitumen, of the thickness of a wafer. The back part of the head was filled with bitumen, which had been poured in at the nose, and had penetrated even into the bone of the skull. The body was bound round with a bandage of linen tape about three quarters of an inch broad, under which were four folds of cloth, then a swathe two inches broad, and under that eight different bandages of the same breadth laid across from the shoulders to the hips on the other side: under this was a crust of linen about an inch thick, burnt almost to ashes, but sticking together by means of the gums with which it had been smeared. The arms were laid across the breast, the right hand over the left, and both lying towards the face. From the hips to the feet, were eight bandages twelve inches broad, and under these were bandages an inch thick consumed by time, and the heat of the drugs; but the outer bandages did not appear to have been smeared with gums. The coffin in which the body was put was formed of two pieces of wood hollowed so as to receive it, and being put together were fastened with broad pegs in the top fixed in holes in the lower part. This coffin was in the shape of an human body, as bound up after its being embalmed; and both the coffin and body wrapped up in linen, were painted and covered with a thin plaster.

One of the catacombs is appropriated for the birds and other animals worshipped by the ancient Egyptians; for when they happened to find them dead they embalmed them, and wrapped them up with the same care as the human bodies. The catacomb is about thirty feet deep, and has the same kind of entrance, only the passage from it is about eight feet wide, and almost filled with sand. It is also much more magnificent than the others. The birds are deposited in earthen vases, covered over and stopped close with mortar. In one of the irregular apartments are large jars that might be for bigger animals. In short, the birds were embalmed by dipping them in gums and aromatic drugs, and bound up, like the human bodies, with many folds of linen.

We shall conclude this section with a description of that famous building called the Labyrinth, at a place called the town of Caroon, near the city of Memphis, which is said to have been much more surprising than the pyramids. It was built, according to Herodotus, by the twelve kings of Egypt, when the government was divided into twelve parts, as so many places for them to meet in, and transact the affairs of state and religion. This was so extraordinary a building, that Daedalus the famous Athenian artificer, came to Egypt on purpose to see it, and formed the labyrinth in Crete for king Minos on the model of this. The same historian thus describes it: "This labyrinth has twelve saloons or covered courts, with gates opposite to each other, six towards the south, and six towards the north in continued lines. They are surrounded by the same outward wall. The apartments are on two floors, the one under ground, and the other over them, and are three thousand in all, each floor consisting of one thousand five hundred. Those above ground I myself have seen and gone through, so that I speak from my own knowledge; but those beneath the sepulchres of the kings, and of the sacred crocodiles, the rulers of the Egyptians were by no means willing to exhibit. The upper apartments are greater than any other human works; for the outlets at the top, and the various windings through the saloons, gave me infinite surprize, as I passed from a saloon into apartments, and from apartments into bed-chambers, and into other rooms out of the bed-chambers, and from apartments into saloons. The roof of the whole is stone as well as the walls. The latter are adorned with sculpture: each saloon has a peristyle of white stones admirably joined together. Quite close to the line where the labyrinth terminates, is a pyramid of two hundred and forty feet, on which large animals are engraven, and the entrance into it is under-ground." Little, however, is now to be seen of these boasted pieces of art, but heaps of ruins, broken co-

lumns, shattered walls, and entablatures. Among the rest, is the foundation of an oblong square building formed of a reddish stone or marble. Some semicircular pilasters are placed upon it, and the remains of the edifice above are of brick plastered over.

It is the opinion of Diodorus Siculus, and several other ancient historians, that this structure was absolutely a sepulchre in which many of the Egyptian kings, particularly those who are supposed to have founded it, were interred; and this opinion appears the more probable, as those monarchs prided themselves in being deposited in pyramids and other magnificent structures, after their deaths.

Historians mention, that among the bodies of deceased men, which had been preserved through many ages, and were actually entire in the time of Augustus, was that of Alexander the Great. They farther tell us, that Augustus, when in Egypt, had the curiosity to visit the tomb of that mighty conqueror, and saw therein the body in a shrine of glass substituted in the room of one of gold, which had been taken away by Seleucus.

SECT. VI.

Treating of the Ruins still to be seen of several cities of EGYPT, famous in ancient Times; particularly BUSIRIS, HELIOPOLIS, ANTINOPOLIS; several remarkable Antiquities; a more particular Account of the miraculous Serpent Hered; also a Description of the Ruins of TENTYRA, THEBES, &c. with other Cities and Places of UPPER and LOWER EGYPT.

SOME of the ruins of the cities and temples of Egypt, like those of Palmyra and Balbec, raise our ideas of their ancient magnificence and grandeur; while others only shew the places where the most splendid cities, &c. once stood; the vast length of time since they were built having levelled them with the dust, and only left a few scattered monuments of the most superb structures as testimonials of the truth of history, and as specimens of the architecture of the early ages before it was improved, and carried to perfection by the Greeks. Those of the last kind, and which are most imperfect, shall take the first place here.

The village of Baalbeit, a little to the northward of Cairo, is situated on one of those artificial eminences on which probably stood Busiris, a city celebrated for its temple dedicated to Isis: here are the remains of a temple, whose materials are the most costly of any in Egypt. The temple appears, from these ruins, to have been about two hundred feet long and one hundred broad, and, at about one hundred feet distance, it is encompassed by a mound raised to keep out the Nile. The outside of this structure was of grey granite, and the insides and columns of red, the capitals being the head of Isis: there seem to have been four rows of twelve columns each in the temple. But what most commands the attention and admiration of the curious is, the exquisite beauty of the sculpture; for though the figures are only about four feet high, there is something so fine, and so divine in the mien of the deities and priests, that exceeds imagination. But the columns are frequently cut into mill-stones by the natives, who are constantly employed in destroying these fragments of antiquity.

To the north east of Cairo are the small remains of Heliopolis, or the City of the Sun, situated on the borders of the Delta, which is the Or of the Scriptures, and is now called Matarfa. It was a city of great antiquity, and famous for the worship of the sun. They also worshipped a bull, which was kept here under the name of Mnevis. A large mound encompasses the whole, the ancient scite being about a mile long, and half a mile broad. Here are the remains of a temple, several sphynxes, and an obelisk near seventy feet high. The priests of Heliopolis were the most famous of all Egypt for the study of philosophy and astronomy; and were the first that computed time by years, of three hundred and sixty-five days. They had here a sort of college consisting of a great number of rooms. Herodotus came to this place to be instructed in the Egyptian learning; and Strabo, when here, was shewn the apartments of Plato and Eudoxus. Near this city was a famous observatory, which received its name from Eudoxus, who was a great astronomer, and studied that science here for many years. There is great reason to think that the territory about Heliopolis is the land of Goshen, called also Rameses in Scripture; especially as the children of Israel went by Rameses the first station, on their departure from Egypt; the country being near Memphis, where it is probable Pharaoh resided at that time.

We read in history, that Sesostris erected, in Heliopolis, two obelisks of extreme hard stone, brought from the quarries of Syene, at the extremity of Egypt, which were each one hundred and eighty feet high, and of one piece of granite. They were cut with a design to acquaint posterity with the extent of his power, and the number of nations he had conquered. Augustus caused one of these obelisks to be transported to Rome, and placed in the Campus Martius. He durst not venture upon a second, which was near the palace of Heliopolis, and of a prodigious size, made in the reign of king Rameses, who it is said employed twenty thousand men in cutting it. This obelisk must be considered as one of the most valuable monuments which now remain of Egyptian antiquity. It was respected even by Cambyfes, at the time when that furious prince put all to fire and sword in Egypt, and who neither spared temples, nor those superb monuments, whose ruins are still the admiration of travellers. This prince, after having made himself master of Heliopolis, gave up the whole town to the flames; but when he saw the fire approaching to this obelisk, he ordered it immediately to be extinguished. It was afterwards brought to Rome by Constans, the son of Constantine, and placed in the Circus, with immense labour and expence. It was afterwards thrown down, but re-established by the care of pope Sixtus V.

The village of Matara is situated at a small distance to the south of the above city. It is said the holy family lay for some time concealed here when they came into Egypt; and they add, that being in danger from some bad people, a tree opened, and became hollow to receive and shelter them.

More to the east are the remains of an oblong square edifice of white hewn stone plastered over, with a kind of base and plainth ranging round. Near it is a kind of rustic building that seems to have been a gate. At length appear the remains of the grand structure itself, which is now called the castle of Caroon. It had a portico of rustic work, which is now no where above six feet high, and the front is more ruinous than any other part. On the other sides are forty tiers of stone, each nine inches deep, and consequently it is there thirty-three feet high; it has signs of a cornice ranging round with ornaments of sculpture. There are four rooms in the length of this building, with the doors crowned with double cornices, and over each a kind of false door ornamented in the same manner; on the sides of the walls are several niches, and many stones are scattered about the plain, of some of which the shafts of the columns appear to have been composed.

The ruins of the city of Antinopolis lie a little farther to the south, where antiently was a town called Basa; Antinous, who accompanied Hadrian into Egypt, being drowned there, that emperor built this city, and named it Antinopolis, in allusion to his favourite, to whom he instituted games and divine honours. It was about four miles in circumference, and on the part where it stood is now a town called Enfineh. Some remains of this antient city are still to be seen, particularly a beautiful gate, of which the front is almost entire; and behind it are four pillars, together with as many columns and their capitals, the fronts being fluted. Beyond this gate is an avenue with one hundred and thirty pilasters on each side, but they are all in a very bad condition. At the end of this avenue stands the column of Alexander Severus, the Roman emperor; the fusts, which is built of five pieces of stone, is thirty-two feet long, and has a proportionable diameter. The first piece and the capital is ornamented with foliage; the pedestal is square, twelve feet high, and five broad. On one side of it is a Greek inscription, but the greatest part of it is so defaced as to be entirely unintelligible. Near this pedestal is another, on which also are the remains of a Greek inscription. About one hundred yards from this last is a triumphal arch almost entire. The fronts are forty-eight feet wide, and the sides twenty-four in length. It has three gates, the two outermost of which are seven feet wide, and twenty high; and the centre one, which is the largest, is sixteen feet wide, and thirty feet high. Opposite each of the four sides of this triumphal arch was a colonade, or range of pillars of red granite, of which nothing remain but some broken pillars.

In this part of Egypt also stood Cynopolis, or, The City of Dogs, in which Anubis was worshipped; and dogs were held in great esteem, a certain food being allotted to them. It is said the rise of this was owing to Anubis, a companion of Osiris, who wore the dog's-skin for armour, as an emblem of his courage; as Macedon, his other companion, wore the skin of a wolf, on which account it is conjectured these animals came to be worshipped.

Several other cities also ornamented this part of the Egyptian country, called, Heptanomis, or Middle Egypt; namely, 1. Acanthus, where was a temple of Osiris, and a wood of Thebaic Acantha, that produced gums, from which, it is probable, the city might have received its name. 2. Heracleopolis, or the city of Hercules, in an island made by a canal running from the Nile. 3. Nicopolis, which stood in the lower part of this island, to the north. 4. Arifnoe, on a branch of the Nile, which ran into the lake Moeris, about fifty miles south-west of Memphis, and twelve miles and a half from the lake. It was first called the city of Crocodiles, because the inhabitants worshipped that animal. It is conjectured that this city was about four miles in circumference, and had a canal on every side. Some of its ruins are still to be seen near the province now called Fayoum. 5. Oxyrynchus, so called from a fish of that name worshipped all over Egypt, but principally in this place, where a temple was erected to that deity. 6. Hermopolis, or the temple of Mercury, now the village of Archo-Mountain. This city of was situated about two miles from the river, and was irregular its form, being about a mile long, and half a mile broad. Here is still to be seen the grand portico of an antient temple, consisting of twelve pillars, six in a row, and nine feet in diameter. About three miles south-west of these ruins was the antient castle of Hermopolis, where they took custom for all commodities brought from the city of Thebes. 7. On the east side of the river stood Anucropolis, or the city of Anchors; so called from a neighbouring quarry, out of which were cut stone anchors. 8. Aphroditopolis, or the city of Venus, the inhabitants of which paid particular adoration to a white cow. 9. Coreefura, situated on the western side of the Nile. 10. New Babylon, supposed to have stood on Mount Jehhufi, at the south end of Old Cairo, where many ruins are still to be seen.

To the south of Hermopolis is a mountain called Shebat el Kofferi, in the side of which are some remarkable antiquities. After ascending the mountain for about two hours, you arrive at a gate which leads into a great saloon, supported by hexagonal pillars cut out of the solid rock. The walls are adorned with paintings, which are still plainly to be distinguished, and the gold that was employed glitters on all sides. There are openings leadings to other apartments; but those are filled up with rubbish. There is another apartment above, to which you may arrive, though with great difficulty, by climbing up on the outside. It is smaller than the first, and has no pillars, but is painted like the other. On each side of the second grotto is a tomb of the same stone with the mountain, with which they both form a continued body. One is open, and the other closed, but almost buried in the sand. This upper cavern had also a communication with other apartments; but those are also closed up, like some of the others.

Gawa Kiebra is a little farther to the south: here still remains a beautiful portico of a temple, containing eighteen pillars in three rows: these have a singular kind of capital, and their shafts are enriched with hieroglyphics, executed in a masterly manner. This temple appears to have been extremely magnificent, not only from the grandeur of the portico, but from the vast stones which formed the walls, one of which was found to be twenty-one feet long, eight broad, and four deep; and another thirty feet long, and five broad. At some distance behind the portico is a stone shaped like the top of an obelisk, which is adorned with hieroglyphics, and has on one side of it a niche as if for a statue.

There is at some distance to the south the grotto of the famous serpent called Heredy, where is the tomb of a pretended Turkish saint, adorned with a cupola raised above the mountain. The Arabs affirm, that this saint, who was named Heredy, dying in this place, was buried here; and that, by a particular favour of the Almighty, he was transformed into a serpent that never dies, but heals diseases, and bestows favours on all who implore his aid. Of this serpent both Dr. Pococke and Mr. Norden have given a very particular account, and perfectly agree in the particulars they relate of it; and therefore we shall give an account of it here, as this can hardly fail of being acceptable to the curious reader, who will doubtless be inclined to entertain a very mean opinion of the people who could be deceived by this pious fraud; but absurd as it is, it is not more so than the vulgar belief among the ancient Romans, attested by very creditable authors, of Æsculapius entering into a serpent, and under that form being brought to Rome and curing a pestilence in that city.

It seems this miraculous serpent pays great respect to particular

particular persons, and is more propitious to the great lords than to the poor: for if a governor be attacked by any disorder, the serpent has the complaisance to suffer himself to be carried to his house; but a person of the common rank must not only make a vow to recompense him for his trouble, but send a spotless virgin on the important embassy: for the fair alone can have any influence on him; and if her virtue should be the least sullied, he would be inexorable. On her entering into his presence, she makes him a compliment, and, with the most humble submission intreats him to suffer himself to be carried to the person who wants his assistance.

The serpent, who can refuse nothing to female virtue, begins at first with moving its tail; the virgin redoubles her intreaties, and at length the reptile springs up to her neck, places itself in her bosom, and there remains quiet, while it is carried in state in the midst of loud acclamations, to the house of the person who dispatched the ambassadors. No sooner is it brought into the room, than the patient begins to find himself relieved. Yet this miraculous physician does not withdraw; for he is very willing to remain some hours with the patient, if during the whole time they take care to regale his priests, who never leave him.

All this is performed to admiration, provided no Christian or other unbeliever comes in, whose presence, it is pretended, would entirely mar the plot; for this sagacious serpent, on perceiving him, would immediately disappear. The priests would search for him in vain, and it would be impossible to find him: for were he carried to the other side of the Nile, he would return invisibly to his dwelling in the tomb. The Arabs even boldly assert, that were he cut in pieces, the parts would instantly join again; and that nothing can put a period to his life, being destined to be immortal.

The Christians, who ought to claim a degree of wisdom superior to the Arabs, have even the folly to believe that this pretended saint is the devil himself, whom God has permitted to mislead these blind and ignorant people; and in this belief they are confirmed by a tradition, that to this place the angel Raphael banished the devil Asmodi, whom in Tobit viii. 3. he is said to send into Egypt. On which an author of credit makes the following reflection:

"I am persuaded," says he, "that both the Arabs and these Christians offend against the rules of reason. Before we consider a thing as miraculous or superstitious, it is necessary to examine whether the fact itself be true; whether the circumstances are such as are pretended, and whether no fraud is used. I agree that the serpent is there, but it cannot be immortal; he undoubtedly dies like other serpents, and the priests who draw a profit from him substitute another of the same kind in his room. Were they indeed to cut the serpent in pieces, and were the parts seen to join again, it might be esteemed a proof of its immortality; but they can never be brought to this: and when the emir of Akmim ordered them to make this trial in his presence, the priests excused themselves from the experiment.

"Is there any thing easier than to make a tame serpent obey certain signs? The virginity of the ambassador is secured by her being so young as to be free from suspicion; and serpents are known to be attracted by certain odours and herbs, with which the girl may be rubbed; at least she is adorned with chaplets and garlands of flowers, in which they take care not to forget such as are agreeable to the serpent. In short, if it be asked how it is possible that it should disappear from the sight of so many people, I answer, that it is sufficient to conceive that these priests are excellent jugglers, and there will be no difficulty in imagining them capable of conveying away the serpent in the presence of a great number of spectators, without the most attentive and quick-sighted being able to perceive it: whoever has seen the tricks daily played by the mountebanks in the great square before the castle of Cairo, must have been struck with feats much more remarkable than this." If to all this be added the account travellers give us of the dancing-serpents, and other particulars relating to those reptiles, in Indostan, every thing mysterious in the affair will vanish, and the whole must appear to be an arrant imposture.

We shall now proceed to give a description of the ancient state of Upper Egypt, or Thebais, and also an account of the ruins and remaining antiquities in that part of the country.

The city of Tentyra was situated still farther up the Nile, the inhabitants of which paid extraordinary adorations to Venus and Isis, to each of whom they built a temple. From the many heaps of ruins seen here, the

city appears to have been of great extent, and to have been much frequented since it was in its ancient splendor. People seem to have lived even in the temples, and several houses have been built of unburnt brick on the top of the great temple, which is two hundred feet long, and forty-five broad. The principal remains of the ancient buildings are near each other; these are two gates and four temples.

The grand temple already mentioned appears to be that of Isis, and seems entire, only the apartments which appear to have been built at the top are destroyed, and six or seven of the rooms which have been formed below are filled up. There is an ascent to the top by ten flights of steps. The pillars are adorned with large capitals of the head of Isis, each capital having four faces, one on each side, and over them are compartments in basso relievo, finely executed, and in a noble taste. At the end of the grand room are four stories of hieroglyphics in seven compartments, each of which has two or three human figures, but some of them are defaced. There are likewise four stories of hieroglyphics on the outside, and it is not improbable that before the ground was raised there were five both within and without. On the outside of the south end are five colossal figures, and two more beautiful than the rest stand at each corner. Round the top of the edifice are several spouts, with an ornament over them representing the head and shoulders of the sphynx before-mentioned.

The ruins of the ancient city of Thebes, being the most considerable in Egypt, and generally known by the name of The antiquities of Carnack and Luxorien, two villages situated among those ruins of antiquity, we shall now give our readers a particular description of them.

The city of Thebes extended on both sides the river, and according to some authors, was built by Osiris, and according to others by Busiris II. who appointed its circuit, adorned it with magnificent buildings, and rendered it the most opulent city upon earth. It was originally called Diospolis, or the city of Jupiter, and afterwards obtained the name of Thebes. Diodorus Siculus observes, "that not only this king, but many of his successors, improved the city with presents of gold and silver, with ivory, and a multitude of colossal statues; and that no city under the sun was so adorned with obelisks of one entire stone. The buildings erected here by the antients have remained to modern times; but the gold and silver, the ivory, and precious stones, were carried away by the Persians when Cambyzes set fire to the temples of Egypt. It is said that the Persians having transferred this opulence to Asia, and having carried artists with them from Egypt, built the magnificent palaces of Persepolis, Susa, and others in Media. It is added, that the riches of Egypt were at that time so great, that after the plundering and burning, there were taken above three hundred talents of gold, and two thousand three hundred talents of silver, from among the ruins."

There were four temples admirable in beauty and greatness, the most antient of which, according to Diodorus Siculus, was in circuit thirteen stadia, and forty-five cubits in height, with a wall of twenty-four feet broad. The ornaments and offerings within were agreeable to this magnificence, both in value and workmanship. The ruins of the above temple are still to be seen, and it is computed to have been about half a mile in circumference. It has eight grand entrances, to three of which were avenues of a great length between sphynxes, two of them having sixty of these statues on each side. Having passed between these at one of the entrances, you come to four grand gates at a considerable distance behind each other in a direct line to the temple. They are about thirty-five feet deep, one hundred and fifty in length, and, before the ground was raised, must have been from sixty to sixty-five feet high. These structures lessen every way like a pyramid, from the bottom to the top: the first is of red granite finely polished, and beautifully adorned on the outside with hieroglyphics, in four series from the top downwards, and three on the inside, in each of which are the figures of two men finely executed, and bigger than the life. Farther on each side are colossal figures, about fifteen feet high, with hieroglyphics under them; and in this last manner the gates are adorned, but without the compartments.

Dr. Pococke, who viewed these venerable ruins, observes, that on each of these gates there seem to have been colossal statues. On the outside of the first, on one side, is a statue of red granite, and on the other a statue of a kind of granite that seems composed of small pebbles. On measuring the head of one of them, it was found to be five feet six inches in length. The next gate is much ruined, and

has

has only two stories of colossal figures to the south, and one to the north. The third gate is covered all round with hieroglyphics and colossal figures of men; and here are the remains of a statue of white marble, the head of which has a serpent on its casque. This head is four feet and a half from the top to the lower part of the neck. The fourth gate is a heap of ruins; and before the main building is a large pond, that was probably a reservoir of the water of the Nile for the use of the temple. From those gates walls had been built, that extended to the other gates, as well to enclose particular courts between the gates and the temple, as to form the entire inclosure of the building.

There is another superb entrance about one hundred and fifty paces to the west, with the same kind of avenue of sphynxes; and all the rest have the appearance of extraordinary magnificence. The grand entrance to the west is forty feet broad, the bottom part being a solid wall of the same thickness. Within this is a large open court, having on each side, at the first entrance, a terrace of eighty feet broad. In the front of the entrance are two small windows; but the upper story is in many parts so ruined, that at a distance it has the appearance of battlements. The walk between the two terraces leads to the inner part of the temple, and is adorned on each side with a grand colonade of pillars above forty feet high, and eight feet diameter, with large capital vases, like a base, only worked with some figures in lines. At the farther end of these pillars are two colossal statues of red granite on pedestals four feet wide, and six long, but the heads are broken off, and the statues much disfigured and mutilated.

Our author says, that notwithstanding the wall of the inner temple is greatly ruined, it has in its present state more grandeur and magnificence than in any other building he ever saw. The door is very high, and yet in a just proportion; and the walls on each side are beautifully adorned with hieroglyphics and the figures of men, in six compartments, above nine feet high, and twelve wide, every compartment having the figure of three men in it.

There appear, on entering the inner temple, sixteen rows of pillars one way, and eighteen another; those in the two middle rows are eleven feet in diameter, and the others eight, with capitals of square stone. The temple was higher above the middle rows than in the other parts, and had a kind of windows over the space between every two pillars, with twelve lattices of stone in each. Both within and without the temple are hieroglyphics, and other representations. Carved representations of battles and chariots, one of which is drawn by stags, are still to be seen on the outside to the north, which was beautified in a very grand manner.

There is on each side of the grand entrance into the east end of the temple, an obelisk upwards of sixty-five feet high and six square, having only one column of hieroglyphics. Farther to the east are two obelisks, seven feet six inches square, and seventy-three feet high; but one of them is fallen down: they are all of red granite, and these two last have three columns of hieroglyphics all the way down. At a little distance from these obelisks are two walls, separated by an entrance in the middle, and on the west side of them are colossal busts.

Continuing along the middle to the east, you come to a small room of red granite; and on each side of the temple are several apartments, some of which might probably have been appropriated to the use of the priests, and others adapted for the beasts they kept for sacrifice. About one hundred and sixty feet to the east, is a large building which consists of several small apartments on each side of a spacious colonade, and seems as if adapted for the use of the officers of the temple. To the north of this are ruins of buildings, with a grand gate before them, which seems originally to have led to the temple. Among the rest, are the remains of a temple, which appear to have been one hundred and seventy-five feet in diameter, and to have been of a round form.

The following are the principal hieroglyphics now to be seen on the gates of the abovementioned temple: on one, a man offers the deity, in each hand, a vase like a chocolate dish, having on each arm something resembling a folded napkin. In another, one seems to offer himself to two deities, which might probably be the sun and moon. A man likewise offers something like apples to one on a throne, four deities being on thrones above, as on another floor. A bird like a hawk on a pillar somewhat resembling the Corinthian order. A peacock on another. A man standing before four monkeys, which are on two floors; and three trees on a pedestal. These figures are all entire, for they could not easily be disfigured, being cut in granite.

Here are also the remains of several other temples, whose ruins are scattered several miles round; among these, one of them, from the situation of its fragments, appears to have been round, and in diameter near one hundred and seventy-five feet.

A very elegant temple once stood about four miles east of Carnack; but the whole of it is totally destroyed, except the grand gate, which is entire, and near it is a sphynx about four feet long. And about a mile to the north of Carnack is a kind of street, on each side of which is a rocky ground about ten feet high; in these rocks are cut many rooms, and supported with pillars. Being contrived as excellent securities against the inclemency of the weather, they are therefore supposed to have served instead of houses in the very earliest times.

After passing through several vallies, where the mountains rise to a great height, the traveller comes to a round opening like an amphitheatre, and, ascending it by a narrow steep passage, arrives at a mountainous place called Bribah-el-Maluke, the sepulchres of the kings of Thebes, which are formed in the rocks. The vales, in which are these grottos, are covered with rough stones, that have probably rotted from above. It is about one hundred feet wide, between high precipices, in which grottos are cut in a most beautiful manner. Long galleries, or passages are formed under the mountains, out of a close white free-stone that cuts like chalk, and is as smooth as the finest stucco work. There are generally four or five of these galleries one within another, from thirty to fifty feet long, and from ten to fifteen feet high, leading to a spacious room, in which is the king's tomb, or coffin, with his figure cut in relief on the lid: in one of the galleries the picture of the king is painted at full length. Both the ceiling and sides of the rooms are cut with hieroglyphics of birds and beasts, some of them painted, being as fresh as if they were but just finished, though they must be above two thousand years old. One of these sepulchres is most beautifully adorned with hieroglyphics cut in the stone, and painted.

The entrance into this, which has a descent, is cut through the rock, and for thirteen feet is open at the top: then for eight more the ceiling inclines, answering to the descent under it. The galleries have hieroglyphics carved on each side, first on a kind of compartments next to the ceiling, in the manner of a frieze. Below them are carved figures representing mummies, and under there are hieroglyphics all down the sides, divided by lines into different columns. In the middle of the ceiling are the figures of men with stars on each side. The king's tomb is of one stone of red granite, seven feet nine inches high, eleven feet eight inches long, and above six feet broad, the cover being made to shut into it; and on it is cut the figure of the king in mezzo relievo, with an hieroglyphical inscription, which may be some account of the monarch. This room is adorned with hieroglyphics in different columns, with figures of men, hawks, and bulls. In the great room is the statue of a man holding a sceptre in his hand, and on the ceiling is painted a large figure of a man holding a particular kind of sceptre, with wings hanging lower than his feet, and covering his whole body. On each side of the entrance are four men cut in the stone above the natural size, with the heads of hawks and other animals, of different species.

To the southward of these mountains are two very extensive apartments: to one of them is a descent of ten steps to a spacious area cut in the rock, which leads to a room supported by square pillars, also cut out of the solid rock; and beyond it is a long room supported by pillars on each side. All the apartments are adorned with hieroglyphics; but they are in some places black and scaled, as if damaged by fire. Beyond these rooms are apartments, to which there is a descent of several steps to the right; and one part leads to a gallery cut round the rock, which has apartments on one side, and in them are holes cut perpendicularly down to other apartments below, where there are doors and openings, and probably as many rooms as above. One would imagine, says Dr. Pococke, that these were the habitations of the living, and that they were cut under those of the kings of Thebes, if they were not themselves palaces, to which those princes retired to avoid the heat, when it was most intense.

Other apartments are cut in a small hill near the appearance of a grand entrance under the mountains: the way to which is through a valley, that seems to have been divided by walls or mounds into four parts; one of them is dug much deeper than the rest, and was probably a reservoir of the water of the Nile, and the others extend towards some remains of old buildings.

To the west is a room that has a well-turned arch, and appears to have been used as a Christian church; for the hieroglyphics, which are in small columns, and extremely well cut, have been covered with plaster, on which is painted Christ encompassed with a glory.

To the south-east are the ruins of a large temple, and at a distance from it the ruins of a pyramidal gate, and of a very large colossal statue, broke off about the middle of the trunk. It is twenty-one feet broad at the shoulders; from the top of the head to the bottom of the neck is eleven feet; and the ear is three feet long.

Two rows of square pillars are in the first court of the temple; on each side of which is a statue, but their heads are broke off. Each of these statues has the lituus in one hand, and the flagellum or whip in the other, as is commonly seen in the statues of Osiris. In the second court are the remains of two colossal statues sitting; they are of black granite, and the head of one of them, which lies on the ground, is three feet five inches in length.

Many pillars belonging to the temple are still standing, and many others are destroyed. Two sorts of pillars are observed in this edifice, one more beautiful than the other. Their thickness and solidity give them at a distance a noble appearance, and on approaching them the eye is entertained with the hieroglyphics; and when you are near them their colours have a fine effect. This sort of painting has neither shade nor degradation. The figures are encrusted with it like painting in enamel; and it is said to surpass in strength every thing seen of the kind, it being superior in beauty to the *al-fresco* and Mosaic work, with the advantage of being more durable. It is surprising to see, how the gold, ultra marine, and other colours have preserved their lustre to the present time.

Besides the antiquities already mentioned, at a considerable distance from the temple, are what are called the colossal statues of Memnon, which front the Nile. The first appears to represent a man sitting, and the other a woman in the same posture; and they are both fifty feet high from the bases of the pedestals to the top of their heads. They are seated upon stones fifteen feet in height, and as many in breadth; but the back part of each stone is higher than the fore part by a foot and a half, and they are placed on plain pedestals five feet high. The statue to the north has been broken off at the middle, and has been built up with five tier of stones; but the other is of one single stone: the feet have the toes broken off, and the features are mouldered away by time. The sides of their seats are covered with hieroglyphics; on the pedestal of the statue, which has been broken, is a Greek epigram; and on their insteps and legs are several Greek and Latin inscriptions, some of them epigrams in honour of Memnon; but most of them are testimonies of those who have heard his sound; for one of them has been thought the famous statue of Memnon, which at the first and second hour, it is pretended, uttered a sound, occasioned by the rays of the sun striking upon it, like the breaking of the string of a harp, when it was wound up.

Not far from these statues are the ruins of several others, particularly one of yellow granite almost entire, and from the top of the head to the thigh, was twelve feet in length.

Near two miles from Carnack is a small village called Luxurien, built on a part of the ancient Thebes. On the east end of the river, adjoining to this village, are the remains of a large and magnificent temple, which was also a part of the ancient Thebes, and is called by Diodorus the sepulchre of Osymandus: it is situated on the east side of the river, to the south of the antiquities just described. On approaching it you come to two obelisks, which are probably the finest in the world; they are at present sixty feet high, and might be seventy or eighty, according as the ground has risen, which is certainly a great deal: they are seven feet and a half square, and at bottom might be eight feet. The hieroglyphics extend in three columns down each side, and are cut with a flat bottom an inch and a half deep, and the granite has perfectly retained its polish, which is as fine as can be imagined. On the top of each side a person sits on a throne, and another offers him something on his knees. These figures are likewise below. Lower down are three hawks, then three bulls, and at the distance of about every foot is an owl. There are also monkeys, heads of camels, hares, dogs, serpents, birds, insects, and other creatures.

There is at a small distance from the above, a pyramidal gate, two hundred feet long, and at present fifty-four above the ground. On each side of the entrance is a colossal statue, which rises thirteen feet and a half above the surface

of the earth, though the shoulders are only three feet and a half above the ground. In the front of the pyramidal gate are windows and sculpture, particularly a person seated on a throne, holding out one hand, in which he has a scepter or a staff, and is surrounded by others in postures of adoration. On the other side a man is represented in a car, galloping and shooting with a bow, and followed by many chariots. This may have a relation to the wars of this king against the Bactrians. Within this gate is a court almost filled with cottages, with some pillars that once formed part of a colonade, beyond which was another gate now in ruins, and beyond that another court, which had a large and beautiful altar in the middle, and the history of the king was cut all round on the walls. The pillars in this court are forty feet high; but the work in the capitals, instead of being in relief, is only cut out in lines. The walls of the rooms are adorned with sculpture, among which a deity is represented carried by eighteen men in a kind of boat preceded and followed by a person holding a particular ensign. Here are also a person sitting, and another kneeling to him, with instruments of music, a man leading four bulls with a string, and men kneeling who have in their hands the heads of hawks.

Besides those abovementioned, the following cities, situated on this side of the Nile, were contained in this part of Egypt; namely, 1. Lycopolis, or The City of Wolves, so called from the inhabitants of it paying an extraordinary respect to that animal. 2. Hypsele, about a mile to the west of the Nile. 3. Ptolemais, said by Ptolemy to be the largest of them all. It had a government established after the Greek manner, so that it was probably rebuilt under the Ptolemies, and had its name from them. 4. Abydus, originally famous for having in it the magnificent palace of Memnon. In Strabo's time it was a very small place, and is now a village called El Berbi, or the Temple. 5. Little Diospolis, or the City of Jupiter. 6. Hermonthis, a city in which Apollo and Jupiter were worshipped, and the capital of a province of that name. It was between three and four miles round, and situated in the midst of a long plain. The ruins of the temple of Apollo are still to be seen; but so imperfect as not to convey any idea of the form or magnificence of that structure. Here are two walls of free-stone, which are nine feet asunder; the height of these walls is fifteen feet, and the length thirty-six. On the top of one of them are the remains of a cornice, below which there is a globe, supported by two fish-like lampreys. 7. Aphroditopolis, that is, The City of Venus. 8. Latopolis, in which was the temple of Pallas, where both that deity and the fish latus were worshipped. The principal part of the temple is still standing, and is thus described by Dr. Pococke; "The capitals of the pillars are somewhat like the Corinthian; within the temple are three stories of hieroglyphics of men about three feet high, and at one end the lowest figures are as big as life, one of which has the head of an ibis." 9. Crocoditopolis, or the City of Crocodiles, so called, according to Strabo, from that animal being the particular object worshipped by the inhabitants. 10. Apollinopolis, where was antiently a magnificent temple, some remains of which are still extant; but the interior parts cannot be entered, they being quite filled up with earth and rubbish. Its front, in breadth, was one hundred and eighteen feet: the sides one hundred and sixty-nine feet long, and its height seventy feet. There is now a small village called Uftu on the ruins of the city. 11. The city of Elephantine stood on an island of the same name. The island is about a mile long, and a quarter of a mile broad to the south, ending in a point at the north. There was a temple at Cnuphis on this island, and a nilometer to measure the rise of the Nile. Here are still the remains of a temple, before which is a statue, sitting with the hands across on the breast, and a lituus in each hand: the statue is about eight feet high.

12. The city of Philæ stood about twelve miles from Elephantine, in an island of the same name, not above half a mile long, and a quarter broad. The island was deemed sacred, from an opinion that Osiris was buried there; and the ruins of a magnificent temple are still to be seen. It was called a Temple of the Hawk, from the inhabitants worshipping that bird, the figure of which is cut among the hieroglyphics in several parts. It was built with free-stone, and situated on the west side of the island. The outer court of the temple was of considerable length, and on each side of it are still remaining a row of pillars, ornamented with a variety of capitals. On the outside of the inner court are large colossal figures, and within are several beautiful pillars, ornamented with capitals wrought in basso relievo. The south part of the entrance is terminated

minated by a wall, at which are two obelisks raised on very handsome pedestals; and on each side of the entrance to the east is an obelisk of red granite.

The appearance of the country about this island is very romantic; the east side of it is all rocks; and on the west the hills are either sandy, or of black rocks. The rocks of granite cross the Nile; and in three different places, at some distance from one another, divide the stream into three parts, making three falls at each of them. Here are several large cataracts, the most considerable of which appears to be that described by Strabo, who says, "It is a rocky height in the middle of the river; the upper part of it is smooth, so as the water can run on it, but ends in a precipice down which the water falls."

Going down from the island of Philæ, and on the east side of the Nile, stands Syene, built on very high rocks, opposite the south end of Elephantine. Its ruins are still to be seen on the height over Afronan, exactly under the tropic of Cancer. Pliny mentions this place, and particularly the antient forts here, as being situated in a peninsula; and it is conjectured by modern travellers, that the granite pillars in that neighbourhood are the remains of some antient temple. Strabo tells us, that here was a garrison of three Roman cohorts. The same historian also describes an observatory here, built over a famous well, for making astronomical observations.

The granite quarries are to the south-east of the ruins of Syene; all the country, the islands, and some parts of the bed of the Nile, being red granite, which is the stone mentioned by Herodotus. The quarries are not worked in deep, but the stone is hewn out of the sides of the low hills. Dr. Pococke says, "they seem to have worked in round the stone with a narrow tool, and when the stones were almost separated, there is reason to think they forced them out of their beds with large wedges, of which there are evident signs in all parts of the quarries."

The city of Ombos stood farther to the south of Syene; it is now a village, called Com-Ombo, where a great heap of ruins are still to be seen of an old temple. On some of the pillars, which are a few feet above the ground, are many beautiful hieroglyphics; but the chief parts of the building are so buried in the earth, that no judgment can be formed either of the shape or magnificence of the building in its original state.

Not the least remains are at this time to be seen of the city of Elethya, or Lucina, famous for a temple sacred to that goddess.

The last city we have to mention in this division of the country, is Cnuphis, so called, according to Strabo, from a god of that name which the inhabitants worshipped.

Lower Egypt forms a kind of island, and in shape resembles a triangle, or Δ , from whence it received the name of Delta, the fourth letter in the Greek alphabet. It extended from Heptanouris to the Mediterranean sea, and contained not only that part which is encompassed by the arms of the Nile, but also Marcotis and Alexandria, with its dependencies to the west; and to the east, Casiotis and Augustamnica, with some other territories towards Arabia.

This division begins where the Nile is separated into two large canals, through which it empties itself into the Mediterranean. The eastern mouth is called the Pelusian, and the western the Canopic, from two cities in their neighbourhood, formerly Pelusium and Canopus, called now Damietta and Rosetta; but there are five smaller branches between these two large ones.

Several considerable places were formerly near the lake Maxeotis, but there are no vestiges of them now to be seen.

The famous city of Alexandria (which we have already described) stood between the lake and the Canopic branch of the Nile: the Ptolemies made it the place of their residence, and the capital of all Egypt, after the death of Alexander its founder.

Several other cities were at a small distance from Alexandria, particularly Nicopolis, Eleufis, and Canopus. The latter of these was situated near the sea-side, about thirteen miles from Alexandria. It is said to have been built by the Spartans on their return from the Trojan war, and to have taken its name from Canopus, the pilot of Menelaus, who was buried there. In the centre of this city stood the temple of Serapis, besides which several obelisks were in different parts of it, but not the least part of them is now remaining.

Several other cities antiently stood between the sea and the canal that runs from Alexandria to Canopus, as also to the south and west of the last mentioned place. The cities of Mitelis, Naucratis, and Sais, were likewise be-

tween the Pelusian and Canopic branches; the latter of these was once the metropolis of Lower Egypt, and supposed by some to be the Sin of the Scriptures. Here was a famous temple dedicated to Minerva, and near it was the asylum of Osiris, where he was supposed to have been buried; for, according to the Egyptian mythology, Isis deposited several coffins in different places, that his body might not be discovered by Typhon.

The cities of Cabasa and Brutus stood to the north of Sais, the latter of which was famous for having in it the temples of Diana, Apollo, and Latona.

There are many other cities, besides the above mentioned, in this part of Delta; but we know nothing more than their names, which have been handed down to us by the antients, there not being the least trace of any of them now remaining.

The following remarkable cities once stood on the east-side of the Delta, where Egypt was bounded by Arabia Petræa and Palestine; namely, 1. Barbartus, on the most eastern part of the Nile, where was a magnificent temple dedicated to Diana, whom the Egyptians called Bubastus. 2. Onias, situated higher on the river, and which had its name from a Hebrew priest, who had obtained it of a king of Egypt, and built a temple there in opposition to that of Jerusalem. According to Josephus, Onias was influenced to build this temple, by a great faith he had constantly placed in a prophecy of Esaias, who, six hundred years before, had foretold that a temple should be built in Egypt by a Jew, to the honour of the most high God.

Mount Casius stood at a small distance from these cities; and here, according to Ptolemy, was a town of the same name. Strabo says, it has a magnificent temple dedicated to Jupiter Casius; but what rendered it most remarkable, was, that it contained the sepulchre of Pompey, who was buried in this sandy hill, which runs into the sea, and seems to be the place now called by mariners Tenere. Near this place Pompey was treacherously murdered by the command of Ptolemy. He was buried by Cordus, a Roman soldier; and a superb monument was afterwards erected to his memory, which was repaired and beautified by the emperor Adrian.

The lake Sirbonis, which separates Egypt from Syria, is a little to the east of Mount Casius. The antient Egyptians called it the place of Typhon's exit; and the poets feign, that Typhon lay under it: for in those times it was supposed to be a place of great security. It was then twenty-five miles long, but narrow, and inclosed by hills of sand on each side.

Several other cities formerly stood near the lake Sirbonis and the Red sea, but there are not any remains of them now to be seen. We shall therefore conclude this account of the antient state and antiquities of Egypt, by observing, from Diodorus Siculus, it originally contained eighteen thousand cities, the chief of which was Thebes: Memphis succeeded to Thebes, and at last Alexandria to Memphis; as Cairo has since done to Alexandria; in which city there were four thousand palaces, as many baths, four hundred squares, and forty thousand Jews that paid tribute when it was taken by the Saracens.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Ancient History of EGYPT, including also its Government, Laws, Soldiery, Artificers, Arts and Sciences, Husbandry, &c.

IT will not be expected that we should dwell long upon the antient history of this country, our business being chiefly with the modern; we shall, however, give a short view of it, which we presume may be acceptable to most of our readers.

The Egyptians are certainly a very antient nation, though far from being so antient as they would represent themselves, when they give us a catalogue of their princes, some of whom, according to their fabulous account, must have lived several thousand years before the creation. But if, as it is observed by some writers, the Egyptians, by years, did not mean the periodical revolution of the sun, but only of the moon, their chronology, in that case, might be consistent with reason and truth; but otherwise, as hath been long since remarked of the Chinese and other people, who run up their original so very high, it confutes itself, as no tolerable account or history is given us of these pretended times, but on the contrary, the invention of all arts and sciences, even agriculture, were introduced among them about the time mentioned in our histories;

histories; which could not possibly have been the case, had the world been as old as they suggest; for it cannot be conceived how men could live any time in a regular society without these arts.

That this country was early planted is very evident; but the history of its antient state is so enveloped in obscurity, or disguised by fables, that it cannot in the least be depended on. We cannot with certainty affirm, as some have ventured to do, that Menes, or Misraim, the son of Ham, and grandson of Noah, who reigned in the year of the world 1816, and 2188 years before Christ, was the founder of the Egyptian monarchy, because it is very difficult to shew who were the first planters of almost any nation in the universe: it is sufficient that it appears, that this and several of the neighbouring nations were planted soon after the dispersion of the people at the building of the tower of Babel. But it is observable, that all writers, antient and modern, republican, as well as the advocates for monarchy, agree, that the first plantations or settlements were made and conducted by some great captain or sovereign who had the supreme command of his followers by virtue of his birthright, and that a republican form of government was not known in the first ages of the world. But to return from this digression. Cham, the son of Noah, is generally held to be the same with Jupiter Ammon; and Misraim, his grandson, the same with Osiris, the great deity of the Egyptians; and from him, it is said, descended that race of monarchs, who had the general denomination of Pharaohs; but from whom or how the word Pharaoh came to be the style of their kings, I find no satisfactory reason given.

There are reckoned about sixty princes of the line of these Pharaohs, and they reigned, as it is said, in an uninterrupted succession to the year of the world 3435, when Pharaoh Psammiticus, the second monarch of that name, was conquered by Cambyses II. king of Persia, who united Egypt to that empire, under which it remained till the reign of Darius, being upwards of one hundred years, when it revolted from that crown, and became an independent kingdom again, A. M. 3600, (Amyrteus being their first king after that revolt), in which state it continued about fifty years, when Ochus, king of Persia, recovered the dominion of it again; and it remained subject to the Persian monarchs till Alexander the Great defeated Darius, when it fell under the power of that prince, with the rest of the provinces of the Persian empire.

After the death of Alexander, A. M. 3641, Ptolemy, the son of Lagos, or, as others insinuate, the son of Philip of Macedon, and consequently half brother of Alexander, found means to seat himself in the throne of Egypt, and render it an independent kingdom once again, whose successors, the kings of Egypt, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies; in which line it continued between two and three hundred years, the last sovereign being the famous Cleopatra, wife and sister to Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, and mistress to Julius Cæsar and Mark Antony successively. This was about the year of the world 3925.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy, collected the Alexandrian library, said to consist of seven hundred thousand volumes; and the same prince caused the Scriptures to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner as is commonly related, is justly questioned. The Ptolemies sometimes extended their dominion over a great part of Syria, and were frequently at war with the kings of Syria, in which they met with various success.

After the death of Cleopatra, this kingdom fell under the power of the Romans, and was usually governed by a gentleman of Rome, it being thought too hazardous to trust so considerable a command with a senator. When it was made a province of the empire, it was looked upon as the emperor's peculiar, and afterwards made an entire diocese of itself, subordinate to the *Præfectus Prætorio Orientis*; and while it was under the dominion of the Romans, the nation in general embraced Christianity.

Egypt remained a Roman province till the reign of Heraclius, the emperor of Constantinople, when the people, being disgusted with their governors, called in Omar the third caliph of the Saracens, and submitted themselves to the Mahometan power, being about the year of our Lord 640. But surely the administration of the Greek emperors must be very grievous, which could induce a Christian nation to make choice of a Saracen for their sovereign.

The caliphs of Babylon were sovereigns here till about the year 870, when the Egyptians set up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo, to whom the Saracens of

Africa and Spain were subject; but the governors of the provinces, or sultans under the caliphs of Babylon and Cairo, soon wrested the civil power out of the hands of their caliphs, or high-priests, leaving them only a shadow of sovereignty.

About the year 1160, Assareddin, or Saracen, general of Norraddin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, subdued the kingdom of Egypt, and usurped the dominion of it, being succeeded in this kingdom by his son Saladin, who reduced also the kingdom of Damascus, Mesopotamia and Palestine under his power, and about the year 1190, took Jerusalem from the Christians. It was this prince who established a body of troops in Egypt like the present janissaries, composed of the sons of Christians taken in war, or purchased of the Tartars, to whom they gave the name of Mamalukes, which, it is said, signifies no more than slaves, which, among the forces of the Mahometan princes, is looked upon as a title of great honour, as it expresses their being devoted in a peculiar manner to the service of their sovereign, and consequently they are entitled to greater privileges than other subjects. The posterity of Assareddin enjoyed the crown till the year 1242, when the Mamalukes deposed Elmutan, as they had done his father Melech Assalach some years before, and set one of their own officers upon the throne. The first king of the race of the Mamalukes being Turquemenius, these Mamaluke sultans were engaged in continual wars with the Christians in Syria and Palestine, till Araphus the sixth sultan entirely dispossessed the Christians of the Holy Land; the ninth sultan Melechnaslor subdued the island of Cyprus and made it tributary to Egypt.

About the year 1501, Campson Gaurus the fifteenth sultan of the Mamalukes, entering into an alliance with Ismael the sophi of Persia, against Selimus the third emperor, and tenth king of the Ottoman family, the confederates received several memorable defeats: and Tonombeius II. who succeeded Campson Gaurus, was deposed and murdered by Selimus, and according to some accounts, hanged up at the gates of Grand Cairo. Gazelle, one of the grandees of the Mamalukes maintained a war for some time against Selimus, but was at length defeated, and Egypt made a province of the Ottoman empire.

The Mamaluke sultans were always chosen by a majority of Mamalukes out of their own body, who were so jealous of the kingdom's being made hereditary, that they scarce ever elected the son of the preceding sultan; and if the choice ever happened to fall upon such a one, they were so apprehensive of its being made an ill precedent, that they never rested till they deposed him.

Since the Ottoman emperors have had the dominion of this kingdom, they have always governed it by a viceroy, styled the basha of Grand Cairo: but as Egypt is subdivided into several inferior governments, these governors we perceive are not sent from Constantinople, or appointed by the viceroy, but are natives of Egypt, and seem to be vested with sovereign power in their respective districts, and to have the command of the militia of the several provinces; and are many of them of the race of the Mamalukes. It is true, the viceroy has a considerable body of spahis and janissaries about Cairo to keep them in awe; and every one of these petty princes, it is said, is obliged to mount the viceroy's guard in his turn, with a body of the national troops.

There is a perpetual jealousy between the Turkish basha and these Egyptian royalets; sometimes the basha will take upon him to depose one of them, and perhaps take his head; and there are instances on the other hand, where they have deposed the basha, and compelled the Porte to send them another more acceptable to them: and the Grand Signor has thought fit to humour them in it, rather than hazard the revolt of so rich a province, which is now esteemed the granary of Constantinople, as it was antiently of Rome; for this is a soil so fertilized by the Nile, that it is not in the power of the Turks, it seems, to render it barren. But one great reason of its continuing to be manured is, that they are yet governed by their own princes, and have an inheritance in their lands, which are privileges very few of the subjects of Turkey enjoy besides: neither dare the Turkish government overload this people with taxes, for fear of a general revolt: insomuch that except what the viceroy and his creatures illegally extort from them, the whole revenue raised by the government, does not amount to a million of our money, of which two thirds are spent within the kingdom, and not more than one third comes into the Grand Signor's treasury. But we shall treat more particularly on this subject when we come to give an account of the government of Egypt, at the

the close of this section; and as we have given above a sketch of the antient history of the Egyptians, till they became subject to the Turks, it may be necessary here to subjoin the most remarkable particulars we have been able to collect, relative to their antient government and laws.

The Egyptians were the first people who rightly understood the rules of government. A nation so grave and serious, immediately perceived, that the true end of politics is to make life easy, and a people happy.

The kingdom was hereditary; but according to Diodorus, the Egyptian princes conducted themselves in a different manner from what is usually seen in other monarchies, where the prince acknowledges no other rule of his actions, but his arbitrary will and pleasures. But here kings were under greater restraints from the laws, than their subjects. They had some particular ones digested by a former monarch that composed part of those books, which the Egyptians call sacred. Thus every thing being settled by antient custom, they never sought to live in a different way from their ancestors.

No slave, or foreigner, was admitted into the immediate service of the prince; such a post was too important to be intrusted to any persons, except those who were the most distinguished by their birth, and had received the most excellent education; to the end, that as they had the liberty of approaching the king's person, day and night, he might, from men so qualified, hear nothing which was unbecoming the royal majesty, or have any sentiments instilled into him, but such as were of a noble and generous kind. For, adds Diodorus, it is very rarely seen, that kings fly out into any vicious excess, unless those who approach them approve their irregularities, or serve as instruments to their passions.

The kings of Egypt freely permitted, not only the quality and proportion of their eatables and liquids to be prescribed them (a thing customary in Egypt, the inhabitants of which were all sober, and whose air inspired frugality) but even that all their hours, and almost every action should be under the regulation of the laws.

In the morning at day-break, when the head is clearest, and the thoughts least perplexed, they read the several letters they received, to form a more just and distinct idea of the affairs which were to come under their consideration that day.

As soon as they were dressed, they went to the daily sacrifice performed in the temple, where, surrounded with their whole court, and the victims placed before the altar, they assisted at the prayer pronounced aloud by the high-priest, in which he asked of the gods, health and all other blessings for the king, because he governed his people with clemency and justice, and made the laws of his kingdom the rule and standard of his actions. The high-priest entered into a long detail of his virtues; observing that he was religious to the gods, affable to men, moderate, just, magnanimous, sincere, an enemy to falsehood; liberal, master of his passions; punishing crimes with the utmost lenity, but boundless in rewarding merit. He next spoke of the faults which kings might be guilty of; but supposed at the same time, that they never committed any, except by surprise or ignorance; and loaded with imprecations such of their ministers as gave them ill council, and suppressed or disguised the truth. Such were their methods of conveying instruction to their kings. It was thought that reproaches would only foment their tempers, and that the most effectual method to inspire them with virtue, would be to point out to them their duty in praises conformable to the sense of the laws, and pronounced in a solemn manner before the gods. After the prayers and sacrifices were ended, the councils and actions of great men were read to the king out of the sacred books, in order that he might govern his dominions according to their maxims, and maintain the laws which had made his predecessors and their subjects so happy.

We have already observed, that the quantity, as well as quality, of both eatables and liquids, were prescribed by the laws, to the king; his table was covered with nothing but the most common meats; because eating, in Egypt, was designed not to tickle the palate, but to satisfy the cravings of nature. One would have concluded (observes the historian) that these rules had been laid down by some able physician, who was attentive only to the health of the prince, rather than the legislature. The same simplicity prevailed in all other things; and we read in Plutarch, of a temple in Thebes, which had one of its pillars inscribed with imprecations against that king who first introduced profusion and luxury into Egypt.

The principal duty of kings, and their most essential

function, is the administering justice to their subjects. Accordingly the kings of Egypt cultivated more immediately this duty, convinced that thereupon depended not only the ease and comfort of the several individuals, but the happiness of the state, which would be an herd of robbers, rather than a kingdom, should the weak be unprotected, and the powerful enabled, by their riches and influence, to commit crimes with impunity. Thirty judges were selected out of the principal cities, to form a body, or assembly for judging the whole kingdom. The prince, in filling these vacancies, chose such as were most renowned for their honesty; and put at their head him who was most distinguished for his knowledge and love of the laws, and was held in the most universal esteem. By his bounty they had revenues assigned to them, to the end that, being freed from domestic cares, they might devote their whole time to the execution of the laws. Thus honourably subsisting by the generosity of the prince, they administered justice gratuitously to the people, who have a natural right to it; among whom it ought to have a free circulation, and, in some sense, among the poor more than the rich, because the latter find a support within themselves; whereas the very condition of the former exposes them to more injuries, and therefore calls louder for the protection of the laws.

To guard against surprize, affairs were transacted by writing in the assemblies of these judges. That species of eloquence (a false kind) was dreaded, which dazzles the mind, and moves the passions. Truth could not be expressed with too much plainness, as it was to have the only sway in judgments, because in that alone the rich and poor, the powerful and weak, the learned and the ignorant, were to find relief and security. The president of this senate wore a collar of gold, set with precious stones, at which hung a figure represented blind, this being called the emblem of truth. When the president put the collar on, it was understood as a signal to enter upon business. He touched the party with it who was to gain his cause; and this was the form of passing sentence.

With respect to the laws of the Egyptians, the most excellent circumstance in them was, that every individual, from his infancy, was nurtured in the strict observance of them. A new custom in Egypt was a kind of miracle. All things there ran in the old channel; and the exactness with which little matters were adhered to, preserved those of more importance; and indeed, no nation ever preserved their laws and customs longer than the Egyptians.

Wilful murder was punished with death, whatever might be the condition of the murdered person; whether he was free-born or otherwise. Herein the humanity and equity of the Egyptians, was superior to that of the Romans, who gave the master an absolute power, as to life and death, over his slave. The emperor Adrian, indeed, abolished this law, from an opinion that an abuse of this nature ought to be reformed, let its antiquity or authority be ever so great.

Perjury was also punished with death, because that crime attacks both the gods, whose majesty is trampled upon, by invoking their name to a false oath, and men in breaking the strongest tie of human society, viz. sincerity and honesty.

The false accuser was sentenced to undergo the punishment which the person accused was to have suffered, had the accusation been proved.

He who neglected, or refused to save a man's life, when attacked, if it was in his power to assist him, was punished as rigorously as the assassin. But if the unfortunate person could not be succoured, the offender was at least to be impeached, and penalties were decreed for any neglect of this kind. Thus the subjects were a guard and protection to one another, and the whole body of the community united against the designs of the bad.

No man was allowed to be useless to the state; but every man was obliged to enter his name and place of abode in a public register, that remained in the hands of a magistrate, and to annex his profession, and in what manner he lived. If such a one gave a false account of himself, he was immediately put to death. The wisest and best regulated states, as Athens and Rome, ever found insuperable difficulties in contriving a just medium to restrain on one hand, the cruelty of the creditor in the exaction of his loan; and on the other, the knavery of the debtor, who refused or neglected to pay his debts. Now Egypt took a wise course on this occasion; and without doing any injury to the personal liberty of its inhabitants, or ruining their families, pursued the debtor with incessant fears of infamy from his dishonesty. No man was permitted to borrow money without pawning to the creditor the body of his

his father, which every Egyptian embalmed with great care, and kept reverentially in his house, and therefore might be easily moved from one place to another. But it was equally impious and infamous not to redeem soon so precious a pledge; and he who died without having discharged his duty, was deprived of the customary honours paid to the dead.

Polygamy was allowed in Egypt, except to priests, who could marry but one woman. Whatever was the condition of the woman, whether she was free or a slave, her children were deemed free and legitimate.

One custom that was practised in Egypt, shewed the profound darkness into which such nations, as were most celebrated for their wisdom, have been plunged; and this was the marriage of brothers with sisters, which was not only authorized by the laws, but even, in some measure, was a part of their religion, from the example and practice of such of their gods as had been the most antiently and universally adored in Egypt; that is, Osiris and Isis.

A very great respect was there paid to old age. The young were obliged to rise up for the old, and on every occasion to resign to them the most honourable seat. The Spartans borrowed this law from the Egyptians.

The virtue in the highest esteem among the Egyptians was gratitude. The glory which has been given them of being the most grateful of all men, shews that they were the best formed of any nation for social life. Benefits are the bands of concord, both public and private. He who acknowledges favours loves to do good to others; and in banishing ingratitude, the pleasure of doing good remains so pure and engaging, that it is impossible for a man to be insensible of it. But no kind of gratitude gave the Egyptians a more pleasing satisfaction, than that which was paid to their kings. Princes, whilst living, were by them honoured as so many visible representations of the Deity; and after their death were mourned as the fathers of their country. These sentiments of respect and tenderness proceeded from a strong persuasion, that the Divinity itself had placed them upon the throne, as he distinguished them so greatly from all other mortals; and that kings bore the most noble characteristics of the Supreme Being, as the power and will of doing good to others were united in their persons.

We have already observed, in our account of the Egyptian mummies, that it was customary, particularly with the more opulent, to preserve the bodies of their deceased relations, or such persons for whom they had a peculiar regard and veneration; the method of doing which, is thus described by a late author. "In the preparing of them, so as to keep them from putrefaction, they drew out the brains at the nostrils, and supplied their place with preservative spices; then cutting up the belly with an Ethiopian stone, and extracting the bowels, they cleansed the inside with wine; and stuffing the same with a composition of cassia, myrrh, and other odours, they closed it again. The poorer sort of people effected the like with bitumen, and the juice of cedars, which, by the extreme bitterness and siccative faculty, not only immediately subdued the cause of interior corruptions, but have preserved them from putrefaction above three thousand years." The seeing the bodies of their ancestors they had preserved, recalled to mind those virtues for which the public had honoured them; and they were excited to love those laws which such excellent persons had left for their security. We find, that part of these ceremonies were performed in the funeral honours done to Joseph in Egypt.

Among the heathens, it was a consolation to a dying man, to leave a good name behind him; and they imagined that this is the only human blessing of which death cannot deprive us. But the antient Egyptians would not suffer praises to be indiscriminately bestowed on all deceased persons. This honour was to be obtained only from the public voice. The assembly of the judges met on the other side of the lake, which they crossed in a boat. He who sat at the helm was called Charon in the Egyptian language; and this first gave the hint to Orpheus, who had been in Egypt; and, after him, to the other Greeks, to invent the fiction of Charon's boat.

As soon as a man was dead, he was brought to his trial. The public accuser was heard. If he proved the deceased had led a bad life, his memory was condemned, and he was deprived of burial. The people were affected with laws, which extended even beyond the grave; and every one, struck with the disgrace that was inflicted on the dead person, was afraid to reflect dishonour on his own memory, and that of his family. But if the deceased per-

son was convicted of any crime, he was interred in a dishonourable manner.

There was a still more astonishing circumstance in this public inquest on the dead; namely, that the throne itself was no protection from it. Kings were spared during their lives, because the public peace was concerned in this forbearance; but their quality did not exempt them from the judgment passed upon the dead; and even some of them were deprived of sepulture. This custom was imitated by the Israelites. We see in Scripture, that bad kings were not interred in the monuments of their more worthy ancestors. This practice suggested to princes, that if their dignity placed them out of the reach of man's judgment, while they were alive, they would at last be liable to it, when death should reduce them to a level with their subjects.

When a favourable judgment was pronounced on a deceased person, the next thing was to proceed to the ceremonies of interment. In this panegyric, no mention was made of his birth, because every Egyptian was deemed noble. No praises were considered as just or true, but such as related to the personal merit of the deceased. He was applauded for having received an excellent education in his younger years; and, in his more advanced age, for having cultivated piety towards the gods, justice towards men, gentleness, modesty, moderation, and all other virtues which constitute the good man. Then all the people shouted, and bestowed the highest eulogiums on the deceased, as one who would be received for ever into the society of the virtuous in the kingdom of Pluto.

We shall now proceed to give some account of the military men, artificers, arts and sciences, husbandmen, &c. of the antient Egyptians.

Among the antient inhabitants of Egypt, the profession of arms was in great repute. After the sacerdotal families, the most illustrious, as with us, were those devoted to a military life. They were not only distinguished by honours, but by ample liberalities. Every soldier was allowed an *aroura*, that is, a piece of arable land, very nearly answering to half a French acre, exempt from all tax or tribute. Besides this privilege, each soldier received a daily allowance of five pounds of bread, two of flesh, and a pint of wine. This allowance was sufficient to support part of their family. Such an indulgence made them more affectionate to the person of their prince, and the interests of their country, and more resolute in the defence of both; and, as Diodorus observes, it was thought inconsistent with good policy, and even common sense, to commit the defence of a country to men who had no interest in its preservation.

Four hundred thousand soldiers were kept in continual pay (all natives of Egypt) and trained up in the exactest discipline. They were inured to the fatigues of war, by a severe and rigorous education. There is an art of forming the body as well as the mind. This art, lost by our sloth, was well known to the antients, and especially the Egyptians.

Foot, horse, and chariot races, were performed in Egypt with wonderful agility, and the world could not shew better horsemen than the Egyptians. The Scripture, in several places, speaks advantageously of their cavalry.

Military laws were easily preserved in Egypt, because sons received them from their fathers; the profession of war, as all others, being transmitted from father to son. Those who fled in battle, or discovered any signs of cowardice, were only distinguished by some particular mark of ignominy, it being thought more advisable to restrain them by motives of honour, than by the terrors of punishment.

But notwithstanding this, we will not pretend to say that the Egyptians were a warlike people. It is of little advantage to have regular and well paid troops; to have armies exercised in peace, and employed only in mock fights; it is war alone, and real combats, which form the soldier. Egypt loved peace, because it loved justice, and maintained soldiers only for its security. Its inhabitants, content with a country which abounded in all things, had no ambitious dreams of conquest. The Egyptians extended their reputation in a very different manner, by sending colonies into all parts of the world, and with them laws and politeness. They triumphed by the wisdom of their counsels, and the superiority of their knowledge; and this empire of the mind appeared more noble and glorious to them, than that which is achieved by arms and conquest.

The Egyptians had an inventive genius, and turned it

to profitable speculations. Their Mercuries filled Egypt with wonderful inventions, and left it almost ignorant of nothing which could accomplish the mind, or procure ease and happiness. The discoverers of any useful invention received both living and dead, rewards equal to their profitable labours. It is this that consecrated the books of their two Mercuries, and stamped them with a divine authority. The first libraries were in Egypt; and the titles they bore, inspired the reader with an eager desire to enter them, and dive into the secrets they contained. They are called the Office for the Diseases of the Soul; and that very justly, because the soul was there cured of ignorance, the most dangerous, and the parent of all other maladies.

As their country was level, and the air of it always serene, and unclouded, they were some of the first who observed the courses of the planets. These observations led them to regulate the year from the course of the sun; for, as Diodorus observes, their year, from the most remote antiquity, was composed of 365 days, and six hours. To adjust the property of their lands, which were every year covered by the overflowing of the Nile, they were obliged to have recourse to surveys; and this first taught them geometry. They were great observers of nature, which in a climate so serene, and under so intense a sun, was vigorous and fruitful.

By this study and application, they invented, or improved, the science of physick. The sick were not abandoned to the arbitrary will and caprice of the physician: he was obliged to follow fixed rules, which were the observations of old and experienced practitioners, and written in the sacred books. While these rules were observed, the physician was not answerable for the success; otherwise a miscarriage cost him his life. This law checked indeed the temerity of empirics; but then it might prevent new discoveries, and keep the art from attaining to its just perfection. Every physician, if Herodotus may be credited, confined his practice to the cure of one disease only; one was for the eyes, another for the teeth, and so on.

What we have said of the pyramids, the labyrinth, and that infinite number of obelisks, temples, and palaces, whose precious remains still strike with admiration, and in which were displayed the magnificence of the princes who raised them, the skill of the workmen, the riches of the ornaments diffused over every part of them, and the just proportion and beautiful symmetry of the parts in which their greatest beauty consisted; works in many of which the liveliness of the colours remain to this day, in spite of the rude hand of time, which commonly deadens or destroys them: all this, we say, shews the perfection to which architecture, painting, sculpture, and all other arts had arrived in Egypt.

The Egyptians entertained but a mean opinion of that sort of exercise, which did not contribute to invigorate the body, or improve health; nor of music, which they considered as a useless and dangerous diversion, and only fit to enervate the mind.

Husbandmen, shepherds and artificers, formed the three classes of lower life in Egypt, but were nevertheless had in very great esteem, particularly husbandmen and shepherds. The body politic requires a superiority and subordination of its several members; for as in the natural body, the eye may be said to hold the first rank; yet its lustre does not dart contempt upon the feet, the hands, or even on those parts which are less honourable. In like manner, among the Egyptians, the priests, soldiers, and scholars were distinguished by particular honours; but all professions to the meanest, had their share in public esteem, because the despising any man, whose labours, however mean, were useful to the state, was thought a crime.

A better reason than the foregoing might have inspired them at first, with these sentiments of equity and moderation, which they so long preserved. As they all descended from Cham, their common father, the memory of their origin occurring fresh to the minds of all in those first ages, established among them a kind of equality, and stamped, in their opinion, a nobility on every person derived from the common stock. Indeed, the difference of conditions, and the contempt with which persons of the lowest rank are treated, are owing merely to the distance from the common root; which makes us forget, that the meanest plebeian, when his descent is traced back to the source, is equally noble with those of the most elevated rank and titles.

Be that as it will, no profession in Egypt was considered as groveling and sordid. By this means, arts were raised to the highest perfection. The honour which cherished them, mixed with every thought and care for their

improvement. Every man had his way of life assigned him by the laws, and it was perpetuated from father to son. Two professions at one time, or a change of that which a man was born to, were never allowed. By this means, men became more able and expert in employments, which they had always exercised from their infancy; and every man adding his own experience to that of his ancestors, was more capable of attaining perfection in his particular art. Besides, this wholesome institution, which had been established antiently throughout Egypt, extinguished all irregular ambition; and taught every man to sit down contented with his condition, without aspiring to one more elevated, from interest, vain glory, or levity.

From this source flowed numberless inventions for the improvement of all the arts, and for rendering life more commodious, and trade more easy. We could scarcely believe that Diodorus was in earnest in what he relates concerning the Egyptian industry; namely, that these people had found out a way, by an artificial fecundity, to hatch eggs, without the sitting of the hen; but all modern travellers have put this beyond a doubt; and we have already given an account of the methods made use of for this purpose.

With respect to their soil and produce, we shall treat only of some plants peculiar to Egypt, and of the abundance of corn which it produced.

The papyrus is a plant, from the root of which shoot out a great many triangular stalks, to the height of six or seven cubits. The antients wrote at first upon palm-leaves; next on the inside of the bark of trees, from whence the word *liber*, or book, is derived: after that, upon tables covered over with wax, on which the characters were impressed with an instrument called *Stylus*, sharp-pointed at one end to write with, and flat at the other to efface what had been written; which gave occasion to the following expression of Horace: "Oft turn your stile, if you desire to write things that will bear a second reading;" which intimates that a good performance is not to be expected without many corrections.

At last the use of paper was introduced; and this was made of the bark of papyrus, divided into thin flakes, or leaves, which were very proper for writing; and this papyrus was likewise called *biblus*. Pliny calls it a wonderful invention; so useful to life, that it preserves the memory of great actions, and immortalizes those who achieved them. Varro ascribes this invention to Alexander the Great, when he built Alexandria; but he had only the merit of making paper more common; for the invention was of much greater antiquity. The same Pliny adds, that Eumenco, king of Pergamus, substituted parchment instead of paper, in emulation of Ptolemy king of Egypt, whose library he was ambitious to excel by his invention, which carried the advantage over paper. It was called *pergamenum* from Pergamus, whose kings had the honour of the invention. All the antient manuscripts are either upon parchment or vellum, and a great deal finer than the common parchment. The plant papyrus was likewise used for sails, tackling, cloaths, coverlets, &c.

Linum, flax, is a plant whose bark, full of fibres and strings, is useful in making fine linen. The method of making this linen in Egypt was wonderful, and carried to such perfection, that the threads which were drawn out of them were allowed to be too small for the observation of the sharpest eye. Priests were always habited in linen, and never in woollen, and not only the priests, but all persons of distinction, wore linen cloaths. This flax formed a considerable branch of the Egyptian trade, and great quantities of it were exported into foreign countries: a great number of hands, especially women, were employed in the making of it.

Another kind of flax was called *Byssus*: this was exceeding fine and small, and often received a purple dye. It was very dear, and none but rich and wealthy persons could afford to wear it. Pliny, who gives the first place to the *asbeston* or *asbestinum* (the combustible flax), places the *byssus* in the next rank, and says, that it served as an ornament to the ladies. It appears from the Holy Scriptures, that cloth of this fine flax was brought from Egypt.

Another plant in great request with the Egyptians was the Lotus, or Lote-tree, whose berries served them in former times for bread. There was another Lotus in Africa, which gave its name to the *Lotophagi*, or Lote-eaters, because they lived upon the fruit of this tree, which had so delicious a taste, if Homer may be credited, that it made the eaters of it forget all the sweets of their native country, as Ulysses found to his cost, in his return from Troy.

It may be said, that the Egyptian pulse and fruits were excellent; and might, as Pliny observes, have sufficed singly for the nourishment of the inhabitants; such was their excellent quality, and so great their plenty. And, indeed, working men lived then almost upon nothing else, as appears from those who were employed in building the pyramids.

Besides these rural riches, the Nile, from its fish, and the fatness it gave to the soil for the feeding of cattle, furnished the tables of the Egyptians with the most exquisite fish of every kind, and the most succulent flesh. This it was which made the Israelites so deeply regret the loss of Egypt, when they found themselves in the dreary desert. "Who," say they, in a plaintive, and at the same time, seditious tone, "shall give us flesh to eat? we remember the fish, which we did eat in Egypt freely; the cucumbers and melons, and the leeks, and the onions, and the garlic: we sat by the fish-pots, and we did eat bread to the full."

But the great and matchless wealth of Egypt arose from its corn, which, even in an almost universal famine, enabled it to support all the neighbouring nations, as it particularly did under Joseph's administration. In later ages, it was the resource and certain granary of Rome and Constantinople.

SECT. VIII.

Of the present Political, Military, and Civil Government of EGYPT.

THIS is the most considerable government belonging to the Grand Signor. It is vested in a basha, twenty-four beys, and seven corps of different troops, without the consent of whom the basha cannot act. He begins his viceroyship with the month of September, which is the first in the Coptic calendar; and the Grand Signor sends his order every year towards that time, by virtue of which he is either confirmed in his post, or dismissed from it. His residence is in the castle of Cairo; and he holds a divan, or privy council, three times a week, viz. Sundays, Tuesdays, and Thursdays; at which the beys and ajas, or heads of the abovementioned troops, always assist and give their attendance.

The number of beys, though fixed at twenty-four, is never complete: the basha, who has a right to appoint them, turns the salary of those who are wanting, to his own account. This salary is five hundred aspers, or about fifteen shillings per day; and in case they have some campaigns for the good of the country, it is double that sum. The dignity of bey is purchased, and thirty purses is generally the price paid for it.

The case is nearly the same with the militia, or land-forces, who are seldom found to exceed half their proper number; only with this difference, that the officers appropriate to their own use the pay of those that are wanting, though not without making some suitable acknowledgment to the basha for conniving at the deficiency of the troops ordered to be provided.

The janissaries and Arabs are the two only corps of troops which serve on foot; the rest being horsemen, and are called jumalis, tufekgis, sherekfas, mettefaracas, and shaous. The janissaries are supposed to form a body of twelve thousand, the Arabs one of eight thousand, and the horse twenty thousand; so that the whole number should be forty thousand; but they seldom amount to above half the number for the reason before assigned. The foot soldiers form the garrison in the castle and city of Cairo, the mettefaracas hold the other castles, such as Alexandria, Rosetta, &c. The jumalis, tufekgis, and sherekfas, are distributed all over the kingdom, to serve the beys and governors of provinces; and the shaous are appointed to keep a watchful eye over the Grand Signor's chargeable revenues.

This country is divided into a number of provinces, called casheffis. The governors of them are called casheffs; and those who possess villages, meltezens. These are obliged to obey the commands of the divan and basha at Cairo. Each meltezen, or owner of a village, must either have sold or given his right to another forty days before his death. In default of this the whole becomes the property of the Grand Signor, in consequence of his right to confiscate all the possessions of his subjects, who are in his service at the time of their decease.

The troops, as well as the power, are vested in the beys, and there is always one amongst them who takes some degree of authority above the others, and raises their jea-

lously by that means; but he only retains this situation till his enemies have found a stronger party than his own. The government of those who thus elevate themselves above the rest is short, and their end often proves tragical; we are told by Dr. Pococke, that neither the basha, nor any of the beys, scruple taking off their enemies by poison or the dagger, particularly by the former; of which he gives the following instance: "A basha knowing that the bey whom he would willingly dispatch was jealous of his designs, ordered his servant, when he came to visit him, to pour his own coffee, and that of the bey's, out of the same pot. The bey, seeing this, concluded that it could not be poisoned, and drank it off; but the slave, on his giving the coffee to the basha, made a false step, as he was ordered, and spilt it on the floor; upon which the bey perceived the basha's treachery when it was too late to prevent the mischievous effects of it."

The basha generally grows rich when any intestine wars arise, partly because the disunion among the troops throws some of the power back into his own hands, and partly because a considerable share of the estates of those who are killed in battle, or are afterwards proclaimed enemies of the state, becomes his property. But the most considerable branch of his revenue arises from the pestilence that so frequently rages in Egypt; insomuch that during the three or four months it commonly lasts, it produces so great an income, that a single day may bring in two or three hundred thousand crowns, by the deaths of those who are possessed of large villages. By the laws of the Ottoman empire, those lands never revert to the Grand Signor, but a considerable part of them fall to the share of the basha, to which he is entitled by virtue of his commission; and these frequently amount to immense sums, especially as, by the rapid deaths, with which the purchasers are often snatched away one after another, he is enabled to sell the same estate to three or four different persons in one week; since the death of the purchaser extinguishes the property in every land purchase.

In treating of the political constitution of Egypt, a celebrated writer remarks, that "notwithstanding Egypt is subject to the Grand Signor, yet we may say it properly belongs to the Mamalukes, or slaves, most of whom are Georgians or Circassians. The Turks who carry on the trade with those slaves, force them to abjure their religion before they bring them into Egypt. All the beys, and especially all the officers of the troops, are renegadoes: and it is reckoned extraordinary to see a Turk raised to any great military post. They go into the service of the renegadoes, who partly to get rid of the expence of feeding them, obtain from them the pay of a janissary or a horseman; in a word, all the seven corps of troops consist merely of the life-guards of these renegadoes. There are thayas of the janissaries, who have a guard of four hundred men about them, besides those whom they keep in their villages. The renegadoes inherit equal shares of their masters estates with the children; and it has been observed, that the latter being brought up to a voluptuous life, soon spend their inheritance, and are reduced to such wretched circumstances, as to have recourse to their own slaves, and beg of them for subsistence, or even permission to serve them. It may be justly said, that in no country whatever such vast changes happen in families as in Egypt."

The Grand Signor's revenues in Egypt consist of three branches, which arise from the lands, the customs, and the poll-tax on Christians and Jews. All the villages in Egypt pay a certain yearly rent to the Grand Signor; and this is the hafna, or treasure, that is sent every year to Constantinople. How easy the levy is, may be concluded from the sum which is raised, amounting only to six thousand purses, each of twenty-five thousand medines, or about one hundred and twenty pounds sterling; out of this, corn, flour, oil, and the like, are sent yearly to Mecca, and twelve thousand soldiers are paid, which reduces the treasure to one thousand two hundred purses. After other deductions, for the conveyance of the water of the Nile to their lands, preserving the public canals, repairing the castles, supplying the seraglio, and storing the arsenal, the whole of this treasure carried to Constantinople does not commonly amount to more than two hundred purses in specie, or about twenty-four thousand pounds sterling. The customs are farmed; and the persons that pay this poll-tax (which is called the harach, and levied only on Christians and Jews) are only men after they arrive at the age of sixteen.

Not only the political, but civil government of this kingdom is first vested in the basha, whose prime minister is called caia, and generally holds the divan. The basha preserves

preserves a dignity not inferior to that of the Grand Signor. He always sits behind a lattice at the end of the divan, and seldom affixes in person; except on very particular occasions, such as reading some order from the Porte, or the like. When he goes abroad, he is always attended by one of the great officers, called a druggerman aga, who is not only an interpreter, but more especially acts as master of the ceremonies; and he is always escorted by a body of the guards, like the Grand Signor.

The divan is held at the basha's palace at Cairo, three times a week; viz. on Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday. This grand council assemble in a spacious and magnificent hall, which hath a noble square, or court before it, where the members of it parade with all their retinue, and make such a splendid appearance with their servants and horses, richly dressed and caparisoned, and glittering with gold, silver, and precious stones, that it is said to exceed even the pomp of the Grand Signor at Constantinople. According to ancient records, we are informed that Sultan Selim, having told his divan at Cairo, and in the stately hall of the royal palace of the Egyptian monarchs, forbade the then basha, and all his successors, to meet any more in that magnificent apartment, lest the sight of so much grandeur and opulence, joined to the noble appearance of the divan, should inspire them with a desire of shaking off their allegiance to the Porte, and of making themselves absolute masters of Egypt: so that this hall, where the divan now meets, is quite different from that of the ancient Egyptian kings; nor is there any thing in it worthy of observation, except seven deal planks, each about half an inch thick, and closely fastened together with an arrow, which, it is said, that sultan shot through them. These are kept suspended over the place where the cassa sits, as a monument of the above-mentioned monarch's extraordinary strength.

Egypt is subdivided into several provinces, some of which are under the direction of governors, called sangiacs; other divisions of it are governed by Arab sheiks, or chiefs, all of whom are annually chosen by the divan, on the 29th of August, which is the first day of the coptic year. The business of these officers is to collect the revenue belonging to the Grand Signor, and keep the people under the respective jurisdictions in proper order.

Grand Cairo, and the country north of it, are under the protection of the janissaries; and the Arabs guard the country round the city. An officer called the walla, constantly patrols about the city, especially at night; his office answers to that of the Turkish soubasha. He takes into custody all disorderly persons, or such as cannot give a satisfactory account of themselves; and, if they are not protected by the janissaries, frequently punishes them as he pleases. The metessib is another distinguished officer belonging to the city, whose business it is to inspect all weights and measures, and see that their standard is just and legal.

Another great officer is the testerdar, who is lord high treasurer of the tribute paid out of the lands to the Grand Signor. He is chosen annually by the Porte; but usually retains his office during life, except in case of misbehaviour, or breach of trust.

The officer called the emir hadge, or prince of the pilgrims that go to Mecca, is also chosen annually; but in order to make amends for the great expence he must necessarily be at the first year for his equipage, he is generally continued two years in his office. If he be a person of abilities, and has great interest at the Porte, he then continues much longer, though rarely more than six years, for if they conduct the caravan seven years, the Grand Signor presents them with a collar of gold. Their persons are esteemed sacred; and should they in any respect deviate from the conduct they ought to preserve, they are not subject to any other punishment than degradation from their office. He has the command over the estates that belong to Mecca. If he behaves well during his administration, it procures him the general esteem and affection of the whole country. The perquisites of his office, exclusive of what he is allowed by the Porte, consist in being intitled to one tenth of the effects of pilgrims who die on their journey.

The administration of justice here, nearly resembles that in most other parts of the Grand Signor's dominions. A cadiliskier (whose office is much like that of lord high chancellor) is sent annually to Grand Cairo from Constantinople: appeals are made to him from the cadis; and, at his arrival, many causes of importance are brought before him. His house is in the place of justice; and he has his deputy who is called nakib. There are eight cadis in different parts of Cairo, and an officer in every ward,

called kabandi, who is something like a notary-public; for all obligations that are deemed valid, must be drawn by him. The cadiliskier sends the cadis from Cairo to most other towns, and one of the officers is sent annually from Constantinople to Gize, Damietta, Roletta, and Alexandria.

The people here apply themselves greatly to the study of the law, which is written in the purest language, such as is spoken at Damascus. They have a saying, that "the law cuts the sword, but the sword cannot cut the law;" for, however atrocious the offence may be, the Grand Signor himself cannot inflict any punishment on a person of that profession.

One thing much to be admired in the administration of justice here, is, that all causes are immediately decided, as soon as the parties make application to those in whose power it is to determine them. Many causes here, are brought before leading men, who finally decide the matter, without having any reference to a magistrate.

With respect to the punishments inflicted on offenders in Egypt, they are proportioned to the offences committed. Those guilty of murder are punished with death; but in trifling matters, they either give them the bastinado, or else severely whip them. They are particularly severe in the punishment of bakers for making their bread deficient; as also to butchers, for selling their meat either short of weight, or so stale as not to be wholesome. We have a particular account of these latter punishments, given by a person who lately travelled through most parts of this kingdom, which we shall present our readers in his own words:

"The punishment inflicted on bakers in this country, for making their bread deficient in weight, is, I think, severe and cruel; for though I cannot excuse so barbarous an imposition on the labouring part of the community, yet I would by all means limit the punishment within the bounds of humanity. When found guilty of the first offence, the overseer of the bakers, (who is the examiner, and only person who tries them) immediately orders the delinquent to be severely bastinadoed; which is, beating them on the soles of their feet with a large stick; for the second, they are more severely punished in the same manner; and, for the third, without any other process than the above officer's order, they are sometimes put in their own oven, when hot, where they are suffered to perish, being burnt to death; which punishment I saw executed."

"The punishment of the butchers in this country (the same writer informs us) who are detected in selling meat either stale or deficient in weight, is no less extraordinary than that of the bakers, though not so cruel or severe; and as I mean rather to acquaint you more particularly with facts I have had ocular demonstration of, than relations culled from other travellers, such as dancing camels, &c. vouched by many, and which, after the most strict enquiry among the natives, I could never learn the least intimation of, from the oldest inhabitants of Cairo; so you may be assured the following is a fact, of which also I was an eye-witness. A butcher in the neighbourhood where I resided, was detected, by the examining officer, of being guilty of this crime, and without any other form of trial than the order of the officer, was immediately nailed by one of his ears to the post of his own door; his nose pierced, and one end of a wire, about six inches long, fastened to it; at the other end of which, a piece of his stinking meat was fixed. In this situation he was obliged to continue four hours."

It is a privilege belonging to the relations or descendants of Mahomet (called in Arabia, sheriff or noble, and by the Turks, emir or prince) to be exempt from appearing before any judge but their own chief, who is himself a relation of Mahomet, and is called neckile-sheriff. They are so much esteemed, that though any one of the military bodies will punish them if guilty of any misdemeanor, yet they first take off their green turban, out of respect to their character, and then subject them to equal punishments with others; and when they are punished by their own magistrates, the like ceremonies are also used.

Notwithstanding the basha, his beys, and the military officers, administer justice in some cases, yet they themselves pay little regard to the laws of equity. The military officers in particular, enrich themselves by various oppressions of the people, especially of the richer sort, whom they either artfully enlist, or pretend to have enlisted, under some of their bodies; by which they fleece them while alive, and seize on the best part of their effects after they are dead. The basha connives at all these abuses, either as
being

being a sharer of the spoils, or out of fear of disoblighing such a powerful body, by discountenancing or suppressing them.

Proceedings of this arbitrary nature are exercised by the military more or less over the kingdom, especially among the Arabian sheiks, from whom they extort the most exorbitant contributions, under the specious name of tribute for protecting them. The janissaries are so bent upon this point, that they keep an exact register of all the various estates, trades, and occupations in the kingdom; of all the rich and poor; of the different ways by which they have extorted any sums from them; and are ever concerting new methods whereby to renew their oppressions on the people.

These cruel extortions extend in like manner to the Europeans, and other trading nations: as the janissaries are never at a loss to quarrel with them, sometimes about their dress, at others about their behaviour, as not paying them a proper respect, or for admitting some of their Mahometan women into their quarters by night. Thus they extort money under such pretences, whether real or false; for there is no method of avoiding their resentment, but by quick submission, and some answerable atonement, as speedy as valuable, according to one of their favourite adages, that "the egg of to-day is preferable to the chicken of to-morrow." But, of all nations, that of the Jews is most hated, despised, and oppressed by this tyrannical government, under which they are dwindled to a very inconsiderable number, except at Cairo, and reduced to the lowest poverty; though they were once intrusted with some of the most important posts of the state, and were at the same time very numerous and rich.

The people who inhabit the upper part of the kingdom are still more wretched, as they are not only equally oppressed by their rapacious governors, but frequently exposed to the inroads and dreadful ravages of the Arabian sheiks, who take all opportunities of plundering the poor villagers, by way of reprisal, for the hardships they suffer from their petty tyrants and oppressors.

Upon the whole, the government of Egypt, from the tyranny thus exercised by one degree of people over another, may be said to be at least equally oppressive with that under the power of the most despotic prince. The rich plunder the poor, who, in defence of themselves make reprisals wherever they are to be met with. Thus insurrections frequently happen, the consequences of which are not only the loss of property, but of lives; for the poorer sort, when urged by necessity, become desperate, and wreak their revenge on those that have oppressed them; for, when plundered of their wealth, they are seldom at a loss for means to express their resentment of the injuries they sustain.

SECT. IX.

Containing a Description of the Desert, chiefly distinguished by the Provinces or Kingdoms of ZAARA or ZAHARA, BILEDULGERID, and TOMBUTO; with an Account of its Situation, Extent, Divisions and Provinces, Towns, Villages, Inhabitants, their Customs, Dress, Manners, Diet, Marriages, Funerals, &c.

THE desert of Zaara is a vast inhospitable tract of land, which stretches itself from the Atlantic ocean on the west, to the kingdom and deserts of Barca and Nubia on the east, and from the river Senegal on the south, to Biledulgerid on the north; that is, from the eighth degree west, to the twenty-sixth of east longitude, and from the fifteenth degree of east latitude to the tropic of Cancer, comprehending from east to west, a space of at least fifteen hundred miles in length; and in breadth, from north to south about five hundred.

The Arabs divide this immense tract of land into three general districts. Cahel, Zahara, and Asgar, that is, the sandy, stony, and marshy deserts, according to the nature of the soil; but later geographers divide this country into seven provinces, which are Zanaga, Zuenziga, Targa or Hayr, Lempta or Iguidi, Bardoa, Bornou, and Gaoga.

As this country is covered with burning sands, the soil cannot be supposed to be fertile, though that situated on the northern banks of the Senegal being watered, peopled, and cultivated, produces corn, rice, millet, and a variety of fruits, but little more perhaps is reaped than is sufficient for the use of the inhabitants, except dates.

Camels and other cattle are common here, but this country is most remarkable for a species of domestic animal called adimnain, of which there is great plenty. This is

a kind of sheep, about the size of an ass, with long hanging ears: the females have horns, but not the males, and the wool is short, but soft and fine. This animal is so strong that it can easily carry a man for several miles, and so gentle that it never refuses a burthen. The miseries to which the inhabitants of this parched, sandy, and barren desert are exposed, are increased by incredible multitudes of lions, tygers, wolves, and other savage animals, with which it is infested.

That the reader may have as distinct an account of this great tract of country as possible, we shall describe the different provinces and deserts into which it is divided. Beginning at the south, the province of Zanaga extends from the Senegal on the south, to the province of Suz on the north; it is bounded by the Atlantic ocean on the west, and by the territories of Seram, Sunda, and Zuenziga on the east. It contains the two deserts Azvo and Tugguzza or Taggost. The last of these produces a prodigious quantity of rock salt, which is conveyed hence into all the adjacent countries, and is used in the desert chiefly to moisten the mouth parched with the sultry heat, and to preserve the gums against a scorbutic disorder to which the natives are very liable.

If the summer proves dry, travelling is here extremely fatiguing and dangerous; scarce a drop of water being to be seen for thirty leagues together; and when any is found it is so brackish, as to be equally unwholesome and unpalatable. Nor do the cattle fare better, the barren earth not yielding so much as a blade of grass, or any thing for their sustenance, which obliges the passengers to carry not only provisions for themselves, but for their beasts of burthen. Besides the country being flat and sandy, without mountains, woods, rivers, lakes, or any object to direct their course, it would be impossible to avoid losing their way, were it not for the flight of certain birds, who are observed to go and return at certain stated periods. They are also guided by the course of the sun by day, and by the stars by night; which last is probably the usual time of travelling here, as well as in the deserts of Arabia. Yet it is certain, that every part of these deserts is not equally inhospitable, as they are allowed to be inhabited by several different nations, particularly by the Berviches, Ludayers, Duleyns, and Zenequi, some of which are so numerous as to raise fifteen or twenty thousand men; there are also a variety of Arab tribes no less numerous, potent, and warlike, and consequently they find lands capable of providing them and their cattle with subsistence.

Zuenziga is, if possible, a more dry and barren province than Zanaga; and we are told, that of large caravans that pass through this country, seldom half the number, either of men or beasts, ever return; most of them dying of thirst, hunger, fatigue, or under the whirlwinds of sand with which they are overwhelmed: but this we cannot give entire credit to.

Many beautiful horses are bred in this district; and the inhabitants are such expert horsemen and warriors, that they are become formidable to the princes of Barbary, who study to keep on good terms with them; nor are they less dreaded by the negroes, whom they seize on all occasions, and sell to the people of Fez and Morocco; and when the negroes get any of them in their power, they cut them in pieces by way of retaliation.

Targa is said to be less barren, dry, and sultry than either of the former provinces, it having a variety of good wells of fresh water dug deep in the ground, and the sand produces grass and several vegetables fit for food: the climate is healthful, and great quantities of manna are gathered here, which they sell to their neighbours.

The province of Lempta, which lies to the east of Targa, travellers find no less dangerous than any of the former, on account of the excessive heat of the sun reflecting from the sand, the scarcity of water, the whirlwinds of sand, and the barbarity of the people, who endeavour to rob and plunder all that come in their way. Through this inhospitable region caravans pass from Constantia, and other towns of Algiers and Tunis, to Nigritia, though equally in danger of perishing by thirst, hunger, and the sword; but their attachment to commerce, and the advantages they reap from it, make them encounter these hazards with the utmost fortitude.

The province of Bardoa stretches from the sixteenth to the twenty-second degree of east longitude. The inhabitants, who are named Bardoaits, have no towns but live in tents on the plunder of merchants and passengers. Near the mountains, which form the northern barriers between this province and Tripoli, stands the town of Kala, where are kept some fairs, to which the merchants resort from every

every part of Zahara, and the nations bordering upon the Mediterranean sea, with the wealth of their several countries. The soil is in general dry, barren, and produces no commodities that merit particular notice.

The kingdom or province of Bornou extends from the twelfth to the twenty-second degree of east longitude, and from the seventeenth to the twenty-first degree of north latitude. The northern part resembles in barrenness the other provinces of Zahara; but all the rest, which is the greater part, is well watered by springs and rivers, that fall with a dreadful noise from the mountains, and render the country fertile in corn, grass, and fruits. Both the eastern and western frontiers are inhabited by a people of a roving disposition, who live in tents, and are said to enjoy every thing in common, no such thing as property being known among them. These frontiers are divided into mountains and vallies, covered with flocks of cattle, and fields of rice and millet; timber, fruit-trees, and cotton, also grow on many of the mountains.

The people of this province, as we before observed, live in tents or cabins, which are placed together in the form of a circle, and in the centre is a spacious area, in which they keep their cattle. As they frequently remove from one place to another, they are consequently under disagreeable apprehensions from robbers and wild beasts; and, in order to guard against any surprize from either, they always keep centinels without the tents, who, if any danger appears, give an immediate alarm, which is circulated throughout the encampment, and every person able to bear arms, defends his own habitation.

The poorer part of the natives, who are chiefly shepherds and husbandmen, go almost naked in hot weather, wearing only a short apron before, which reaches to their knees; but the better sort wear a large shirt made of black linen, and fastened round the middle by a sash. Their heads are covered with a red bonnet or cap edged with white cotton; and they wear sandals of Morocco leather, which rise to the calf of the leg. Both sexes wear ear-rings and pendants, as also rings on their fingers, and bracelets on their arms. The men let their hair hang low, but the women tie it up in a knot, and ornament it in proportion to their station and quality. During the winter they are warmly clothed with the softest sheep skins, of which they also form their bed cloaths.

Cakes made of millet are their chief food, and their usual drink is milk or whey. They have wheat and barley, but they are so averse from staying long in a place, that it is seldom reaped by the hands that sow it. They sit cross-legged at their meals, on a mat made of Morocco leather or palm-leaves, and the dishes that contain their food are made of copper or ivory. They wash after their meals, and then regale themselves by drinking coffee, and smoking tobacco. They eat but two meals a day, one a little after sun rise, and the other a little before sun set; and the women are not permitted to eat with the men.

Their male children are circumcised at the age of fourteen: after which they may marry as soon as they can purchase a wife. They who have many daughters consider them as a capital estate, for when any suitor offers himself, he must make considerable presents to the parents, as his success principally depends on that. They form a judgment of the suitor's affections by his liberality; and however well the parties may like each other, the parents of the girl will not deliver her up, till they are satisfied with the present made by the intended husband. If he does not approve of his wife after she is delivered to him by her parents, he may return her back to them; but he is obliged, in that case, to forfeit the presents made previous to their marriage.

On the death of a person, the nearest relation alarms the whole camp, who immediately assemble round the tent of the deceased, and testify their sorrow indiscriminately by the most lamentable shrieks. This continues for some time, when the body of the deceased is washed, and placed on a stool, to be publicly viewed till the grave is made, when he is carried to it, attended by his relations, and the principal people of the camp. After the ceremony, an entertainment is provided by the relations of the deceased for the attendants.

In the southern parts of this province are several good towns, inhabited by people particularly distinguished for their politeness and hospitality; and among them are many artificers and merchants of various nations, and of all complexions. It is said that the government is in general monarchical, and that the king resides at Bornou, the capital of the province, but his palace is a very mean building: and only remarkable for its furniture, the principal part of

which is of solid gold, as are likewise his stirrups and spurs, with the bit and ornaments of his bridles: whence it may be conjectured, that a great trade is carried on here in that article with foreign countries, or that gold is produced either in this, or some of the neighbouring kingdoms.

Besides Bornou, the capital of this province, there are said to be the towns of Amozen, Sagra, and Samegonda, all of them to the northward of the metropolis, and, to the eastward, those of Sama and Nabrina, but as the very existence of these towns is questioned by these writers, therefore no account can be given of them.

The last and most eastern provinces of the desert of Zahara is called by the natives Gaoga, and is reckoned to be upwards of five hundred miles in length from north to south, and three hundred in breadth from east to west, extending itself from the nineteenth to the twenty-eighth degree of east longitude, and from the twelfth to the twenty-second degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the east, by Nubia; on the west, by Bornou; on the north, by part of the same province; and, on the south, by the kingdom of Gorham, from which the river Senegal separates it.

This is for the most part an exceeding mountainous country, and the inhabitants are little better than savages. They go almost naked, and their chief subsistence arises from their cattle: but they sometimes obtain a considerable booty by plundering travellers. They live in small wretched huts, made of so light a construction, that they frequently take fire, and the whole village formed of them is totally consumed.

Gaoga, is the chief and only city in this province: it is situated on the north side of the lake of the same name, in fifteen degrees forty minutes north latitude, and twenty-five degrees thirty minutes east longitude, but it is so wretched a place, and the inhabitants are so rude and illiterate, that travellers have not thought it worthy of a particular description.

We shall now take notice of the learning, poetry, and music, of the natives of the desert of Zahara; their method of making war, skill in horsemanship, and their riding upon the back of an ostrich, &c.

The learning of the Moors and Arabs of the deserts, is so extremely limited, that few of them are able to read Arabic or any other language; yet some of them have a tolerable notion of astronomy, and talk with the precision of an European scholar upon the stars, their number, situation, and division into constellations. The clear and serene sky in which they live has greatly assisted their observations, an advantage they have improved by a warm imagination and a happy memory: their system of astronomy is, however, so replete with fable and absurdity, that it is in general difficult to comprehend their meaning: yet, with all their ignorance, they seem formed by nature for liberal sentiments, and with a taste for the polite arts, as their essays in poetry and music, which are far from being contemptible, seem to indicate. Those who are acquainted with the genius of the oriental tongues, from which theirs is derived, have been highly delighted with their songs, sung in recitative, accompanied by a kind of guitar, which they are extremely fond of.

It might be imagined, from the softness and effeminacy of their music, that these people cannot be very warlike; but if we may judge from some of their maxims, they are far from being pusillanimous. "Can any thing, say they, be more dastardly, than to kill a man before you approach him near enough to be distinguished." Hence they never attack an enemy till they come within the length of their lances, and then retiring to a proper distance, throw them, or shoot their arrows, with surprising dexterity. They fight chiefly on horseback with short stirrups, and by raising themselves high in the saddle, strike with greater force. They never draw up their cavalry in long lines and extended wings, but in small detached squadrons, by which means they are less liable to be broke or thrown into confusion; and when such an accident happens, are more easily rallied. The agility of their horses, and their own skill in riding, give them great advantages by attacking in all quarters, wheeling off, and returning to the charge with amazing dexterity and quickness.

We are told, that they sometimes mount the ostrich. Mr. Adamson says, that some of those he had seen among the burning sands on the north side of the Senegal, are incredibly large, swift, and strong. Two boys were mounted upon the back of one of these gigantic fowls not full grown, with which weight it ran several miles with a velocity exceeding belief, and the swiftness of the fleetest courser. To try the strength of an exceeding large ostrich

ostrich, the gentlemen abovementioned had two stout men mounted upon his back, when their weight appeared by no means disproportioned to his ability, as it was far from retarding its progress. At first the bird went a pretty high trot; but when he was heated he extended his wings, as it were to catch the wind, to which his swiftness seemed indeed equal. "Every body," says he, "must have seen a partridge run, and consequently must know there is no man whatever able to keep pace with it; and it is easy to imagine, that if its steps were longer, its speed would be greatly augmented. The ostrich moves like the partridge, but with the advantage of a long step, and great assistance from its wings; and I am satisfied, those I am speaking of would have distanced the fleetest race horses in England." Whence, we may remark, that if they could be tamed and broke in the same manner as a horse, we might easily judge of their utility.

The natives of this country are in general fond of long journeys and excursions into remote parts on affairs of trade and commerce, in which respect they are so indefatigable, that no hazard is too great, where profit is the motive. These expeditions being undertaken in large caravans, in which their goods and necessaries are carried on camels, they are able to make head against any opposition they may meet with on the road, and seldom return without rich loadings of gold, ivory, gum, ostrich feathers, camel's hair, slaves, and other commodities, which they sell to the Europeans, or to the merchants of Fez or Morocco. As no road or path can be preserved in these sandy deserts, they are directed in their course by the flight of certain birds. The zealous and devout Mahometans consider these as guides sent by their prophet to direct them in their way; and it is said, they never presume to undertake a journey of any considerable length without their direction.

The kingdom of Tombuto, which borders on the province of Zuenziga, is situated to the south-east on both sides the Niger; and, though little known, is said to be of great extent. It took its name from Tombuto its capital, which stands in the latitude of fourteen degrees thirty-two minutes, and in the longitude of two degrees twenty-five minutes east from London.

The houses in the town, as well as those in the circumjacent country, are built of a bell form, and only composed of hurdles plastered over with loam; but here is a handsome mosque built with stone and lime. The royal palace is likewise built with the same durable materials, after a design drawn and executed by an excellent artist of Granada, who was driven hither when the Moors were expelled from Spain. There are some other tolerable structures, besides those abovementioned.

Many weavers of cotton reside in the city of Tombuto, and mechanics are more encouraged there than in any part of Africa. European cloths are brought hither from Barbary and the coast of Guiney. Markets and public fairs are held for the sale of them, to which the women resort with their faces veiled. Some of the native inhabitants and strangers who reside in the city are so rich, that the king thinks it not beneath the dignity of his rank to enter into an alliance with them.

This country is very fertile, being well watered by the river Senegal, which runs through it; and when that river overflows, the water is conveyed by sluices to Tombuto. Besides this, there are many springs, the water of which is exceeding good. Here are all kinds of grain, grass, cattle, milk, butter, and all the necessaries of life, except salt, which they procure by land carriage from Tagara, which is about five hundred miles distant, and is so highly valued, that eighty ducats are given for a camel load of it.

The monarch of this country, when he goes abroad, rides upon a camel richly caparisoned, all the furniture shining with burnished gold, and his horse is led after him by one of his principal officers. He likewise rides upon a camel in war; but all his soldiers are mounted on horses. His attendants consist of three thousand horsemen, and a prodigious number of foot, who, besides other arms, have poisoned arrows. They have frequent skirmishes with those who refuse to pay tribute, and when a conquest is obtained, the captives are sold to the merchants of Tombuto. Their horses are chiefly brought from Barbary, for those bred in the country are so few, and at the same time so small, that they are only used on very trifling occasions. The king, however, is always well provided with these beasts; for when a merchant comes there with horses, he orders the best of them to be picked out for him, and never scruples to pay whatever price the merchant demands. He has in his possession a prodigious quantity of gold plate, and the whole court is said to eat

out of gold vessels; silver, or any other metal being seldom used.

The king has the most profound homage and respect paid him by all his subjects; and when any stranger, or ambassador from other princes obtains an audience of him, he must fall prostrate before him, and shew his submission, by taking up the dust with his hands, and sprinkling it over his head and shoulders. This ceremony is particularly observed by all who never had the honour before.

This prince has such a natural antipathy to the Jews, that he has strictly prohibited their being admitted into the city; and if a merchant is known to traffic with them, he is subjected to a heavy penalty. The king's taste for literature is said to appear from the great number of doctors, judges, and priests, whom he maintains at a great expence in the capital, furnishing them with great convenience for study.

Manuscripts from Barbary are brought hither, and sold as the most valuable merchandize; and some traders are affirmed to have amassed immense wealth by confining themselves to this literary traffic, which the monarch encourages with a princely spirit, taste, and generosity. Notwithstanding all which, learning has made but little progress, except about the court, it having produced no visible alteration in the manners of the people.

The inhabitants are in general mild and gentle in their disposition, frugal in their oeconomy, industrious in the discharge of their several employments, and chearful in the hours of relaxation, which they devote to singing, dancing, and merriment of various kinds.

Great quantities of European cloth are brought hither by the Barbary and Tripoli merchants; besides which, the latter also bring glass beads, coral, paper, copper basons, and other like wares. The articles exported from hence are gold, slaves, ostrich feathers, fena, and dates.

Instead of coin, they use bits of gold, six of which weigh an ounce: they have also shells brought from Persia, four hundred of which are estimated at the value of a ducat: these latter they use in purchasing articles of small price.

There are neither gardens nor orchards without the suburbs of Tombuto. The gentry here place the highest mark of state and dignity in keeping a great number of slaves; but their carelessness frequently produces the most dreadful calamities: since by their means the whole town is often in flames; for the houses, being built of combustible materials, catch fire upon the most trivial accident.

There is a large town to the south of Tombuto, called Cobra, which is pleasantly situated on the banks of the river Senegal. There is a judge appointed by the king to decide all controversies; but the people have the liberty of appealing from his decision to the sovereign. The buildings are much the same as those of the capital, and the inhabitants are no less mild and sociable, though not quite so temperate in their living: they are subject to many diseases, that carry off numbers, which is supposed to be owing to the heterogeneous qualities of their food, which is usually composed of flesh, fish, milk, butter, oil, and wine; besides which, they addict themselves to spirituous liquors, and sometimes drink them to great excess.

The province of Biledulgerid received its name from the Arabic Biled-el-gerid, signifying the land of dates, on account of the great quantity of that fruit which is peculiar to this country, and so plentiful as to supply the neighbouring kingdoms. Some geographers affirm, that this province was antiently known to the Greeks and Romans by the name of Numidia, and that it was then divided into two large provinces, whose inhabitants were distinguished by the names of Mascelyans and Massylians, the latter of which were situated eastward of the former. It is almost of a square form, and extends above eighty leagues every way, or from twenty-eight degrees thirty minutes to thirty-two degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and from five degrees thirty minutes to eleven degrees fifty minutes east longitude; and is bounded on the east by a ridge of lofty mountains which divide it from the kingdom of Tripoli and part of Gudamis, on the west by the countries of Zeb and Mezeb, and on the south by the province of Verghela: this is all that can with propriety be comprehended within the just limits of Biledulgerid, though it is usual to include all the countries here mentioned as its frontiers, under that name.

Biledulgerid is mountainous, sandy, and barren, throughout, producing little besides dates, which grow here in such plenty, that the face of half the country is covered with trees bearing that fruit. The climate is hot and unhealthy, the people lean, swarthy, with shrivelled complexions, and their eyes inflamed, owing to the reflexion of the sunbeams

beams from the white hard soil; and the showers of dust and sand driven by the high winds that blow here at certain seasons with such violence, as sometimes to bury under it both men and cattle.

Eating dates is said to occasion an inveterate scurvy in the gums of the inhabitants, which frequently makes all their teeth drop out, and sometimes spreads over their whole bodies, by which means they are rendered unhappy and extremely loathsome. In other respects the natives are sound, vigorous, and healthy; and many of them live without sickness to a good old age, though they discover a furrowed countenance, shrivelled skin, and hoary locks very early in life, and before infirmity, decrepitude, or any decay of their faculties begin to appear.

The plague, which makes such havoc in Barbary, is in a manner unknown at Biledulgerid; though the countries are contiguous, and there is a constant intercourse between the inhabitants at all seasons. This is also the case with the small pox, which in other hot countries is no less contagious and fatal than the plague.

The people of this country are represented as savage, treacherous, and thievish, consisting of a mixture of old Africans and Arabs. The former live with great regularity in villages, composed of a number of small huts, and the latter in tents, ranging from place to place in quest of food and plunder. There is not a town in the whole country besides Toufèra and Tonfèra worthy of notice; nor is it less destitute of rivers, there being in all this large territory scarce a single stream worth mentioning, or that is not dried up for several months together.

In Biledulgerid, the Arabs, who value themselves on their being superior in birth and talents to the primitive inhabitants, are perfectly free and independent, and frequently enter into the service of the neighbouring princes who are at war. They are fond of hunting, particularly the ostrich, of which they make great advantage, for they eat the flesh, exchange their feathers for corn, pulse, and other things they want, use the talons as pendants for their ears and other ornaments; their fat is esteemed a medicine of singular virtue, and they convert their skins into pouches and knapsacks; so that no part of the animal is left unemployed in some useful purpose. The Arabs likewise live upon the flesh of camels and goats, and drink either the broth in which it is boiled or camels milk, for they seldom taste water, that which is good being generally more scarce than milk itself. They have some horses which they use in the chase, where people of rank are attended by negro slaves; and those of inferior fortune by their women, who are no less obsequious than the slaves themselves, looking after the horses, and performing the most servile and laborious business.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; they have nevertheless schools to which all the boys of distinction are sent in order to be instructed in that kind of knowledge which is most in repute, and are raised from thence to the dignity of judges or priests, in proportion to their genius and the proficiency they have made in their studies. Some addict themselves to poetry, for which many of the natives of this country shew a very early genius; and it is not uncommon to see a person merit the highest distinctions by means of this talent, which, considering the rude ignorance of the people in general, they sometimes carry to an amazing pitch of sweetness and sublimity. Their invention is surprisingly fertile, and they particularly excel in fables and parables. A few of them pursue the mechanic arts: but the people in general despise them as mean and servile: and where any of them engage in the employments of husbandry, their wives and slaves commonly do all the labour.

Toufèra, which De Lisle has placed within the limits of Biledulgerid, stands on the confines of Tunis, in thirty-two degrees twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in ten degrees twenty-six minutes east longitude from London. Of this city Marmol has given us the following account: that it was built by the Romans, and fortified with high walls, the ruins of which are still to be seen. The Mahometans, on their entering this country, plundered and destroyed the city on account of the resistance made by the inhabitants, and thus all its noble structures were demolished, the present buildings consisting only of low and mean huts. Here they have fairs at certain seasons, to which the merchants of the surrounding countries resort. Through the center of the town runs a river, by which the Arabs and Africans are separated, each possessing a certain quarter, the one to the south, and the other to the north, enjoying different privileges, though all are equally the inhabitants of the same city. They are even conti-

nually at war with each other, and make incursions across the river with all the rancour and animosity of declared enemies; but when endeavours are made to bring them under a foreign government, they will then frequently unite against the common foe.

About ninety miles north-west of Tonfèra, in thirty-three degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and nine degrees three minutes east longitude, was situated the city of Capfa, which was almost a Roman city, and was formerly surrounded with high walls, towers, &c. but they were almost totally demolished by the Arabs; but the walls of the citadel are still standing, which are built of large square stones, and are thirty feet thick, and one hundred and fifty in height. It was once a very populous city, and contained many stately mosques, and other magnificent structures; but it is now very poorly inhabited, and the people are greatly oppressed under the Tunisian government. In the center of the city is an inclosed fountain, the water of which is hot, and serves not only to bathe in, but, when cool, to drink. The adjacent country is fertile, and abounds with palm, citron, olive, and other fruit trees; but the climate is very unwholesome, and the inconvenience the inhabitants labour under on that account makes them naturally of a peevish and churlish temper. Both sexes go well clothed, except about their feet, on which they wear large coarse shoes made of the skins of wild beasts, but so much out of form, that they not only disfigure them, but are also exceedingly inconvenient; so that they are obliged to lay them aside, and travel barefooted, when they are on a journey that requires expedition.

We cannot, with propriety, take leave of the continent of Africa, without, in the first place, giving the opinions of the learned concerning the reason of the dark complexion of the negroes, who chiefly inhabit this quarter of the globe. And, secondly, introducing some observations, together with objections and answers, relative to the slave trade, in order to prove that it is absolutely inconsistent with, and even contrary to sound policy, as well as abhorrent to humanity, reason, and justice: with some hints to those who are not to be moved by such arguments; for the better treatment of slaves during their passage from Africa to America, and on the plantations of the latter, for the benefit of both.

A learned author, in treating of the deep-black which tinges the complexions of the negroes, says, "The cause of this singularity has been the subject of much inquiry, which has given rise to a variety of systems. Some have absurdly supposed that the negroes, being the descendants from Cain, have had this mark of infamy stamped upon them, as a punishment for the fratricide of their ancestor. If it were so, it must be allowed that his posterity has made a severe atonement for his crime, and that the blood of the pacific Abel has been thoroughly avenged by his posterity."

It was long the opinion of the Christians in general, (says Mr. Salmon) and perhaps of the Jews before them, that all men were white till after the flood; but that Ham, the second son of Noah, was converted from a white man, to a black man by his father's cursing him; and that Africa, falling to the lot of this son, all his posterity who possessed this part of the world, have remained black ever since.

But that this curse of Noah's was not the occasion of such a change of complexion is pretty evident; for first, the posterity of Cham, or Ham, if they possessed Africa, are not all black. The entire northern coast, from Egypt to the empire of Fez inclusive, and for several hundred miles to the southward, even as far as the tropic of Cancer, if not further, are not black, any more than those who inhabit to the southward of the tropic of Capricorn.

2. The people, in some parts of Asia, particularly in the peninsula of India, on this side the river Ganges, and who are supposed to be the posterity of Seth, the favourite son, are full as black within the tropic of Cancer, as any of the negroes in Africa: nor is there, in the inland country of India, at a distance from the coast, a single person to be found that is not black; at least I never met with one, though I travelled some hundred miles in that country, and resided some time in it. It has been reported, indeed, that there are no blacks out of Africa; but probably those writers who assert this, had their information from such merchants or seamen, as had visited only the coast of India; where, 'tis true, there is a tawny mingled breed; but even there the greatest numbers of the natives are black, who lie within the tropic of Cancer. Indeed the Indian blacks have not the flat noses, and thick lips, or the short frizzled hair of the negroes. But these, I think, have never been reckoned part of Noah's curse.

Another

Another reason assigned for the blackness of the negroes, is the heat of the climate, their country being situated within the torrid zone. But neither can this be admitted as the sole reason of it, for great part of the continent of America also lies within the torrid zone; and yet there never was a black man there, till the Europeans transported them thither from Africa.

Others have suggested, that the people of Africa, being of a tawny complexion, between black and white originally, and not able to make themselves as white as their northern neighbours, took great pains to make themselves black, as a more desirable colour than the olive: that they accordingly rubbed over their bodies with oil or grease, mixed with foot, or some other black ingredients; and thereby contributed to render their complexions darker than they were originally; and that the women afterwards, seeing nothing else but black men, brought black children into the world; and these strengthen their opinions by some very notable facts. It is observed by all travellers, that the negroes grease or anoint themselves and their children, continually from the hour they are born; and many of them mix black ingredients with the ointment; that the Caffres and Hottentots, beyond the tropic of Cancer, who are not naturally of so dark a complexion as the negroes nearer the line, do actually darken their skins pretty much, by rubbing them with fat and foot.

Others observe, that not only the complexions, but the very features, hair, make and stature of people differ, as the country and climate differs, wherein they were severally born; and as to the negroes in particular, their hair, their lips and noses, are not at all like those of Asia or Europe, or even those who live in the north of Africa. The Scythians, of old, and the Tartars and Laplanders, at present, are of a very different make from the people of the southern parts of Europe or Asia: the Tartars are remarkable for their olive complexion, squat make, flat faces, and little eyes set deep in their heads. In some countries the people are tall, in others short; and not only the persons, but the very genius and temper of men differ, as the soil and climate differ where they were born. The Spaniards are grave and sedate, mighty slow and circumspect in their actions; while the French are gay and airy, perpetually dancing and singing: and this difference, no doubt, proceeds from the soil and situation of the respective countries; for, transplant any people from one country to another, they will alter or degenerate into the same kind of men, in a few generations, as the former inhabitants were. If the Spaniards and French were to change countries, they would, in a few generations, alter their persons and humours; the French would be Spaniards, and the Spaniards French.

Did not every body see a remarkable difference between the French and the English, when the French first came over hither: and yet, in two or three generations, it was impossible to distinguish the one from the other. And so I take it to be in complexions, as well as in features and humours: blacks, in a few generations, would become white, if brought over hither; and possibly white men might become black, or very near it, if they were planted a few generations in the heart of Africa, especially if pains were taken to make them so, by rubbing their children with grease and foot from the time they were born, as the Africans do.

To sum up all: the sun, no doubt, goes a great way towards the darkening the complexion of the people that inhabit the torrid zone; but then the soil they live upon, the pains they take to make their children still blacker, and their women conversing altogether, or chiefly with black men, every one of these may contribute something towards making them so exceeding black; for the sun alone, it is certain, will not do it; or the people, who live within the torrid zone in America, would be equally black. And, as to Noah's cursing his son Ham, it is evident, this can be of no weight; for, as I have observed already, great part of the people of Africa (the country his posterity are supposed to inherit) are not black: and the people of the East-Indies, who are supposed to be the descendants of Seth, the favourite son, are as black as any of the negroes of Africa; though, it is true, their hair is long, and their features much more engaging than those of the African negroes.

If it be still doubted, whether the alteration of climate or soil will have any effect upon the features as well as complexion, we may remember, that the Turks, Persians, Indians, and Chinese, all came originally from Tartary (at least the sovereigns and governing parts of those empires); and yet they do not at all resemble the Tartars from whence they descended, at this day, but the people of those countries they respectively possessed to the southward

of them, which, I believe, will be admitted to amount to a demonstration of what has been advanced on this head."

To this may be added, that whatever may be the original and radical cause of that variety of complexion in the human species, it is agreed, that this complexion is owing to a gelatinous substance that is lodged between the cuticle and the skin. This substance is blackish in negroes, brown in olive-coloured or swarthy people, white in Europeans, and diversified with reddish spots in those who have extremely light or red hair. Anatomy hath discovered, that, in negroes, the substance of the brain is blackish, that the pineal gland is intirely black, and their blood is of a much deeper red than that of white people. Their skin is always hotter, and their pulse quicker. The reason of their hair being curled, is because, having to penetrate through a net work of a more dense and tenacious substance, it becomes twisted, and cannot be lengthened out. The sweat of the negro diffuses a strong and disagreeable odour, because it is impregnated with that thick, rancid fluid which hath been long lodged, and slowly oozes out between the cuticle and the skin. This substance is so palpable, that one may distinguish in it, with a microscope, a sediment, formed in little blackish globules. Hence it happens that the linen cloth which wipes off the perspiration of a negro, when copious, is tinged with it.

We shall now offer some remarks and observations relative to the African slaves, of which it has been publicly asserted, that they are equally incapable of reason and virtue. We hope, that what we are going to advance on this subject will set the matter right, and convince every discerning person, that such an opinion is altogether erroneous and unjust.

In the year 1752, an English ship that traded to Guiney was obliged to leave the surgeon behind, whose bad state of health did not permit him to continue at sea. Murray (for that was his name) was there endeavouring to recover his health, when a Dutch ship drew near the coast, put in irons the blacks whom curiosity had brought to the shore, and immediately set sail.

After this transaction, those who took the part of these unhappy people, incensed at so base a treachery, instantly ran to Cudjoe (a black at whose house Murray lodged) who stopped them at his door, and asked them what they were in search of? "the white man who is with you," replied they, "who should be put to death, because his brethren have carried off ours." The generous host answered, "The Europeans who have carried off our countrymen, are barbarians; kill them whenever you can find them. But he who lodges with me is a good man; my house is his fortress; I am his soldier, and I will defend him. Before you can get at him, you shall pass over my body. O my friends, what just man would ever enter my doors, if I had suffered my habitation to be stained with the blood of an innocent man?" This discourse appeased the rage of the blacks; they retired, ashamed of the design that had brought them thither; and some days after acknowledged to Murray himself, how happy they were that they had not committed a crime which would have stung them with remorse as long as they lived.

From the above circumstance it is very reasonable to conclude, that the first impressions which the Africans receive in the new world, determines them either to good or bad actions. Repeated experience confirms the truth of this observation; for those who fall to the share of a humane master, willingly espouse his interests. They insensibly adopt the spirit and manners of the place where they are fixed. This attachment is sometimes exalted into heroism. We shall here give a remarkable instance of this.

A Portuguese slave, who had fled into the woods, having learnt that his old master had been taken up for an assassination, came into the court of justice, and acknowledged himself guilty of the fact: suffered himself to be put in prison instead of his master; brought false though judicial proofs of his pretended crime, and suffered death instead of the guilty person. Actions of a less heroic nature, though not uncommon, have touched the hearts of some colonists. Several would readily say as Sir William Gooch, governor of Virginia, did, when he was blamed for returning the salutation of a black; "I should be very sorry that a slave should surpass me in politeness."

It is a melancholy consideration, that many writers have prostituted their abilities to justify policy which morality condemns. Be that as it may, it would be unpardonable in us, at a period when so many errors are boldly inculcated, to conceal any truth that is interesting to humanity. If whatever we have hitherto advanced hath seemingly tended only to alleviate the burden of slavery, the reason

is, that it was first necessary to give some comfort to those unhappy beings, whom we cannot set free; and convince their oppressors, that they are cruel, to the prejudice of their real interests. But in the mean time, until some considerable revolution shall make the evidence of this great truth felt, it may not be improper to pursue this subject further.

We shall then first prove, that there is no reason of state than can authorize slavery. We shall not be afraid to cite to the tribunal of reason and justice those governments which tolerate this cruelty, and are not ashamed to make it the basis of their power. The celebrated French writer Montesquieu could not prevail upon himself to treat the question concerning slavery in a serious light. In reality, it is degrading reason to employ it in refuting an abuse so repugnant to it. Whoever justifies so odious a system, deserves the utmost contempt from a philosopher, and, from the negro, a stab with his dagger. "If you touch me," said Clarissa to Lovelace, "that moment I kill myself;" and I would say to him, who attempted to deprive me of my liberty, "If you approach me, I will stab you." In this case I should reason better than Clarissa; because, defending my liberty, or, which is the same thing, my life, is my primary duty; to regard that of another, is only a secondary consideration; and the death of the criminal is more conformable to justice than that of an innocent person, if all other circumstances were the same.

"If any one should say," continues our author, "that he who wants to make me a slave, does me no injury, but only makes use of his rights, I ask, Where are those rights? Who hath stamped them upon so sacred a character, as to silence mine? I hold from nature the right of self-defence: nature, therefore, has not given to another the right of attacking me. If thou thinkest thyself authorized to oppress me, because thou art stronger and more ingenious than I am; do not complain if my vigorous arm shall plunge a dagger into thy breast; do not complain when in thy tortured intrails thou shalt feel the pangs of death conveyed by poison in thy food. I am stronger, and more ingenious than thou: fall a victim, therefore, in thy turn, and expiate the crime of having been an oppressor and an enemy of mankind; for that person, who supports the system of slavery, is the enemy of the whole human race. He divides it into two societies of legal assassins; the oppressors and the oppressed. It is the same thing as proclaiming to the world, If you would preserve your life, instantly deprive me of mine, for yours I would fain take away.

"You may perhaps say, The right of slavery extends only to the right of labour, and the privation of liberty, not of life. What! does not my master, who disposes of my strength at his pleasure, likewise dispose of my life, which depends on the voluntary and proper use of my faculties? What is existence to him, who has not the disposal of it? I cannot kill my slave; but I can make him bleed under the whip of an executioner; I can overwhelm him with sorrows, drudgery, and want; I can injure him every way, and secretly undermine the principles and spirits of his life; I can smother, by slow punishments, the wretched infant which a negro woman carries in her womb. Thus the law protects the slave against a violent death, only to leave to my cruelty the right of making him die a lingering one.

"But to carry this reasoning a little farther: The right of slavery is that of perpetrating all sorts of crimes: those crimes which destroy personal safety; for the slave may be sacrificed to the caprice of his master: those crimes which make modesty shudder. My blood rises at these horrid images. I detest, I abhor the human species, made up only of victims and executioners! May it be annihilated, if it is ever to remain in this depraved state!"

This great man now proceeds to disclose his sentiments on this subject without reserve. "Cartouche, the highwayman," says he, "sitting at the foot of a tree in a deep forest, calculating the profits and losses of his robberies, the rewards and pay of his associates, and adjusting with them the ideas of proportion and distributive justice; this Cartouche is not a very different character from that of the merchant who, reclined on his couch, with his pen in his hand, settles the number of attacks which he can order to be made on the coasts of Guiney; who deliberately examines how many firelocks each negro will cost him, in order to support the war which is to furnish him with slaves; how many iron fetters to confine him on board; how many whips to make him work: how much each drop of blood will be worth to him with which each negro will water his plantation: if the black women will contribute

more to his estate by labour of their hands, or by those of bearing children? What think you now of this parallel? The highwayman attacks you, and takes your money; the trader carries off even your person. The one invades the rights of society; the other, those of nature. This certainly is the truth; and if there existed a religion which authorized, which tolerated, even by its silence, such enormities; if, moreover, occupied by idle or factious questions, it did not eternally denounce vengeance against the authors or instruments of this tyranny; if it made it criminal for a slave to break his bonds; if it did not expel the unjust judge who condemns the fugitive to death; if such a religion existed, its ministers ought to be massacred under the ruins of their altars, as examples of terror to others.

"Nay but, say they, these negroes are a race of men born for slavery; their dispositions are narrow, treacherous, and wicked; not only the superiority of our understandings, but the justice of our authority is in a manner acknowledged by them.

"To this I reply, The minds of the negroes are contracted, because slavery destroys all the springs of the soul. They are wicked; but not equally so with you. They are treacherous, because they are under no obligation to speak truth to their tyrants. They acknowledge the superiority of our understandings, because we have abused their ignorance: they allow the justice of our authority, because we have abused their weakness. I might as well say, that the Indians are a species of men born to be crushed to death, because there are fanatics among them, who, before the temple of Jaguernat, threw themselves under the wheels of their idol's car.

"It is further urged, 'But these negroes were born slaves.' Barbarians! will you persuade me, that a man can be the property of a sovereign, a son the property of a father, a wife the property of a husband, a domestic the property of a master, a negro the property of a planter? 'But these slaves have sold themselves.' Could a man ever by compact, or by an oath permit another to use and abuse him? If he assented to this compact, or confirmed it by an oath, it was in a transport of ignorance or folly; and he is released from it the moment that he either knows himself, or his reason returns. 'But they had been taken in war.' What does this signify to you? Suffer the conqueror to make what ill use he pleases of his own victory. Why do you make yourselves his accomplices? 'But they were criminals condemned in their own country to slavery.' Who was it that condemned them? Do you not know, that there is no criminal but the tyrant in a despotic state?

"Those who are under the dominion of an absolute prince are upon the footing with slaves in a state repugnant to nature. Every act that contributes to keep a man in such a state, is an attempt against his person. Every power which fixes him to the tyranny of one man, is the power of his enemies; and all those who are about him are the authors or abettors of this violence. His mother, who taught him the first lessons of obedience; his neighbour, who set him the example of it; his superiors, who compelled him into this state; and his equals, who led him into it by their opinion: all these are the ministers and instruments of tyranny. The tyrant can do nothing of himself; he is only the first mover of those efforts which all his subjects exert to their own mutual oppression. He keeps them in a state of perpetual war, which renders robberies, treasons, and assassinations, lawful. Thus, like the blood which flows in his veins, all crimes originate in his heart, and return thither as to their primary source.

"Caligula used to say, that if the whole human race had but one head, he should have taken pleasure in cutting it off. Socrates would have said, that if all crimes were heaped upon one head, that should be the one which ought to be struck off. Let us therefore endeavour to make the light of reason, and the sentiments of nature, take place of the blind ferocity of our ancestors. Let us break the bonds of so many victims to our mercenary principles, should we even be obliged to discard a commerce which is founded only on injustice, and whose object is luxury. But even this is not necessary: there is no occasion to give up those conveniences which custom hath so much endeared to us. We may draw them from our colonies, without peopling them with slaves. These productions may be cultivated by the hands of freemen, and in that case no remorse would attend the reaping of them.

"In the islands are many blacks, whose fetters have been broken. They successively clear the small plantations that have been given them, or which they have acquired by their industry. Such of those unhappy men as should

recover

recover their independence, would live in quiet, upon the same manual labours, that would be then free and advantageous to them. The vassals of Denmark, and others in the dominions of the empress of Russia, who have lately been made free, have not abandoned their ploughs, or relaxed in their labour, since they have obtained that indulgence.

Notwithstanding the several nations concerned in the African trade are equally interested in preserving the slaves in their passage, yet they do not all attend to it with the same care. They all feed them with beans, mixed with the same quantity of rice, but they differ in their manner of treating them in other respects. The English, Dutch, and Danes, keep the men constantly in irons, and frequently hand-cuff the women. The small number of hands they have on board their ships, obliges them to this severity. The French, who have great numbers, allow them more liberty. Three or four days after their departure, they take off all their fetters. All these nations, especially the English, are too negligent with regard to the intercourse between the sailors and the women slaves. This irregularity occasions the death of three-fourths of those whom the Guinea voyage destroys every year. None but the Portuguese, during their passage, are secured against revolts, and other calamities. This advantage is a consequence of the care they take to man their vessels only with the negroes, to whom they have given their freedom. The slaves, encouraged by the conversation and condition of their countrymen, form a tolerably favourable idea of the destiny that awaits them. The quietness of their behaviour induces the Portuguese to grant the two sexes the happiness of living together; which indulgence would be productive of the greatest inconveniences if allowed in other vessels.

The Guiney negroes in general, and those born in the islands, as well male as female, have the yaws once in their lives; it is a disease they must necessarily pass through; but there is no instance of any of them being attacked with it a second time, after having been radically cured. The Europeans seldom or ever catch this disorder, notwithstanding the frequent and daily connection they have with the negroe women. These women suckle the children of the white people, but do not give them the disorder. How is it possible to reconcile these facts (which are incontestable) with the sentiments which physicians have adopted with regard to the nature of the yaws? May it not be allowed that the semen, the blood and skin of the negroes, are susceptible of a virus peculiar to their species? Perhaps, the cause of this disorder is owing to that which occasions their colour; one difference is frequently productive of another; and there is no being or quality in nature, that exists absolutely detached from others.

Be the cause or nature of this disorder what it may, it is however evident, from the most accurate and undeniable calculations, that one-seventh part of the blacks that are imported into America from Guiney, die there every year. Fourteen hundred thousand unhappy beings, who are now in the European colonies in the new world, are the unfortunate remains of nine millions of slaves that have been conveyed thither. This dreadful destruction cannot be the effect of the climate, which is nearly the same as that of Africa, much less of the disorders, to which, in the opinion of all observers, but few fall a sacrifice.

It may naturally be supposed that this great mortality must originate from the manner in which these slaves are governed; and might not an error of this nature be corrected? The first step necessary in this reformation would be to attend minutely to the natural and moral state of man. Those who go to purchase blacks on the coasts of savage nations: those who convey them to America, and especially those who direct their labours, often think themselves obliged, from their situation, and frequently too for the sake of their own safety, to oppress those wretched men. The soul of these managers of slaves, lost to all sense of compassion, is ignorant of every motive to ensure obedience but those of fear or severity, and these they exercise with all the harshness of a temporary authority. If the proprietors of plantations would cease to regard the care of their slaves as an occupation below them, and consider it as an office to which it is their duty to attend, they would soon discard these errors that arise from a spirit of cruelty. The history of all mankind will shew them, that in order to render slavery useful, it is at least necessary to make it easy; that force does not prevent the rebellion of the mind; that it is the master's interest that the slaves should be attached to life; and that from the moment he no longer fears to die, nothing is to be expected from him.

"Many abuses would be reformed, if the principle of enlightened reason, derived from the sentiments of humanity, had its proper influence. Men would acknowledge the necessity of lodging, cloathing, and giving proper food to beings condemned to the most painful bondage that ever has existed, since the infamous origin of slavery. They would be sensible that it is naturally impossible that those who reap no advantage from their own labours, can have the same understanding, the same œconomy, the same activity, and the same strength, as the man who enjoys the produce of his own industry. That political moderation would gradually take place, which consists in lessening of labour, alleviating punishment, and rendering to man part of his rights, in order to reap with greater certainty the benefit of those duties that are imposed upon him. The preservation of a great number of slaves, whom disorders, occasioned by vexation or regret, deprive the colonies of, would naturally flow from so wise a regulation. Far from aggravating the yoke that oppresses them, every kind of attention should be given to make it easy, and, by favouring a natural taste that seems peculiar to the negroes, to dissipate even the idea of their present situation.

"It may be observed, that the organs of the negroes are extremely sensible of the powers of music. Their ear is so true, that, in their dances, the tune of a song makes them spring up an hundred at once, striking the earth at the same instant. Enchanted, as it were, with the voice of a singer, or the tone of a stringed instrument, a vibration of the air is the spirit that actuates all the bodies of these men; a sound agitates, transports, and throws them into extasies. In their common labours, the motion of their arms, or of their feet, is always in cadence. At all their employments they sing, and seem always as if they were dancing. Music animates their courage, and rouses them from their indolence. The marks of this extreme sensibility to harmony, are visible in all the muscles of their bodies, which are always naked. Being poets and musicians by nature, they make the words subservient to the music, by a licence they arbitrarily assume, by lengthening or shortening them, in order to accommodate them to an air that pleases them.

"Whenever any object or incident strikes a negro, he instantly makes it the subject of a song. In all ages, this has been the origin of poetry. Three or four words, which are alternately repeated by the singer, and the general chorus, sometimes constitute the whole poem. Five or six bars of music compose the whole length of the song. What appears to be a singular circumstance, is, that the same air, though merely a continual repetition of the same tones, takes intire possession of them, and makes them work or dance for several hours; neither they, nor even the white men, are disgusted with that tedious uniformity which these repetitions might naturally occasion. This particular attachment is owing to the warmth and expression which they introduce into their songs.

"Their airs are generally double time. None of them tend to inspire them with pride. Those intended to excite tenderness, promote rather a kind of languor. Even those which are most lively, carry in them a certain expression of melancholy. This is the highest entertainment to minds of great sensibility. So strong an inclination for music might become a powerful motive to action under the direction of skilful hands. Festivals, games, and rewards might on this account be established among them. These amusements, conducted with judgment, would prevent that stupidity so common among slaves, ease their labours, and preserve them from that constant melancholy which consumes them, and shortens their days.

"After having provided for the preservation of the blacks exported from Africa, the welfare of those who are born in the places whither they are conveyed would then be considered. The negroes are not averse to the propagation of their species, even in the chains of slavery. But the cruelty of their masters effectually prevents them from complying with this great end of nature. Such hard labour is required from negroe women, both before and after their pregnancy, that their children are either abortive, or live but a short time after delivery. Mothers, rendered desperate by the punishments which the weakness of their condition exposes them to, sometimes snatch their children from the cradle, in order to strangle them in their arms, and sacrifice them with a fury mingled with a spirit of revenge and compassion, that they may not become the property of their cruel masters. This barbarity, the horror of which must be wholly imputed to the Europeans, will perhaps convince them of their error; so that their sensibility may be roused, and engage them to pay a greater attention

attention to their true interests, as well as the dictates of humanity. They will find, that by committing such outrages on the common rights of mankind, they injure themselves; and they will at least cease to be the executioners, if they will not become the benefactors of their slaves.

"Thus the Europeans, urged by these cogent motives, will perhaps resolve to liberate those mothers who shall have brought up a considerable number of children to the

age of six years. The allurements of liberty are the most powerful that can influence the human heart. The negro women, animated by the hope of so great a blessing, to which all would aspire, and few would be able to obtain, would make neglect and infamy be succeeded by a virtuous ambition to bring up children, especially when freedom and tranquillity would be secured to them by the number and preservation of their offspring."

C H A P. IX.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE AFRICAN ISLANDS;

OF WHICH

ZOCATRA, BABELMANDEL, MADAGASCAR, THE COMORA ISLES,
BOURBON, AND MAURITIUS, ARE IN THE INDIAN OCEAN,
AND THE REST IN THE ATLANTIC.

SECT. I.

Treating of the ISLAND of MAURITIUS, or the ISLE of FRANCE, its Boundaries and Extent, Rivers, Harbours, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS island lies in the Indian ocean, between the nineteenth and twentieth degrees of south latitude, and in fifty-eight degrees thirty minutes east longitude from London, about one hundred leagues to the east of Madagascar. It was early discovered by the Portuguese; after them, the Dutch took possession of it in 1598, and settled on the south shore, but abandoned it after they became possessed of the Cape of Good Hope: they gave it the name of Mauritius in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It remained uninhabited after the Dutch quitted it, till the French in 1720 landed on it.

Mauritius is reckoned to be about forty-five leagues in circumference. The form is oval; and from the many high mountains torrents of fresh water rush down with great impetuosity, and form various rapid rivers and rivulets, which are foul near where they fall, particularly in the rainy season, but grow clearer as they run farther from the mountains, and are transparent as crystal before they disembogue themselves into the sea. A French officer, who made the circuit of the island in 1770, during the dry season, crossed twenty-four rivers flowing with fresh water, but none of them are navigable for sloops above a musquet shot from their mouth. One of these rivers, which is named Anguilles, flows from springs of a ferruginous quality, which covers the water with an oil.

According to the measurement of the Abbe de Caille, the isle of France is, in its greatest diameter, thirty-one thousand eight hundred and ninety fathoms from north to south, and twenty-two thousand one hundred and twenty-four from east to west: its superficial content is four hundred and thirty-two thousand six hundred and eighty acres, of one hundred perches the acre, and twenty feet the perch. The country is hilly, and in some parts mountainous, covered with thick woods. The island is almost entirely encircled, at some distance from the shore, by a belt of rocks; and in the parts where this defence fails, the coast is formed of rocks high and inaccessible.

The wind generally blows from the south-east; but when the sun is in the northern hemisphere, particularly in the months of May and June, it commonly blows from the north-west. The hottest months are those of November and December, but the air is then tempered with plentiful rains, yet dreadful hurricanes visit the island at that season. On account of the conti-

nued storms, all navigation is at a stand from December till April. While a hurricane lasts, it is usual for the wind to go quite the circle of the horizon, after which a perfect calm succeeds. A very fatal hurricane happened in 1760. These tempests destroy a great number of rats, grasshoppers, and ants, with which this island is infested.

This island contains two ports, the principal of which is to the south-east, where the Dutch settlement formerly was, the remains of the building belonging to which are still to be seen. This port may be entered before the wind; but it is very difficult to get out of it, as the gales generally blow to the south-east. The other port, named port Louis, is situated to the north-west, and is smaller than the former; a ship may go in or out of it large before the wind, which induced the French to fix their principal settlement here, although situated in the most disagreeable part of the island.

The town, called also the camp, and which has scarcely the appearance of a market town, is built with tolerable regularity at the bottom of the port, and at the opening of a valley which is about three quarters of a league long, and eight hundred or one thousand yards wide. It consists of wooden houses of one story high, and is defended towards the sea by a fort, called fort Blanco, and a battery. This harbour is greatly obstructed by hulks of ships, which having been long since sunk there, form each an island, which is every day increased by the madrepores growing round them.

There are only three churches in the island, one at port Louis, the second at the south-east part, and the third and handsomest at a settlement called Pamplémouffe. The two first are smaller than the churches of a country village. Indeed, another church was built at port Louis upon a very commodious and elegant plan, but the roof being too much raised, the walls were insufficient to bear its weight, and resist the force of the hurricanes; what remains of it is now used as a storehouse, of which there are but few in the island, and the greater part of them are built of wood, a material by no means proper for public buildings here, where the strongest beams will only last forty years, if the worms do not destroy them sooner.

It has been remarked by a late writer, that every thing in this island differs from what is seen in Europe, even the herbage of the country. The soil is almost every where of a redish colour, and mixed with veins of iron, which are frequently found near the surface, in the form of grain, the size of a pea. In the drier parts, especially near the town, the ground is very hard. It resembles pipe clay; and, to make trenches, they sometimes cut it with axes, as they do lead. As soon as it rains, it becomes soft and

sticky,

sticky, notwithstanding which, they have not yet been able to make it into bricks. There is no real sand in the soil, but the ground is every where rocky, except where artificial means have been used to make it otherwise. The rocky substances in general are of an iron grey colour, contain a great deal of iron ore, and vitrify in the fire. The whole island is surrounded with mad repares, a kind of vegetation of stone, formed like a plant or shrub: these are so numerous, that the rocks seem formed of them only.

With respect to the natural productions of this island, the first we shall mention is a turf, which grows in beds near the sea-shore: it is very thick and elastic; its leaf is very small, and so sharp-pointed as to prick people's cloaths. The cattle will not touch this herb, but love to browse upon a kind of dogs grass, which grows in many parts, and puts out little hard branches from the joints. The best herb, however, is one that grows on the windward side of the island: it has pretty large blades, or rather leaves, and is green and tender all the year. Here is likewise a shrub that yields a kind of fruit whose husk might be turned to singular advantage. A prickly asparagus; a mallow with small leaves; a thistle with yellow flowers, which yield seeds that are poisonous; a bad scented gilliflower; sweet basil, which is of a healing quality; and a kind of sweet-scented lilly.

The vel antier is a plant whose odour is quite agreeable at a distance; less so, as you approach it, and perfectly nauseous when you come near it; and here is a kind of bramble that bears a nut, the kernel of which is bitter, but efficacious in many disorders. The plants called raquettes, which bear yellow flowers, are used in making hedges, on account of their sharp prickles.

Here is a very pretty shrub called bois de demoiselle, or lady-wood; others that resemble the box-tree, and that bear a great affinity to the cork-tree. Balm shrubs and a bastard kind of potatoe are common; as is panier grass, which serves for physic and cloathing, for it is used medicinally, and likewise to make thread. Here are likewise many other shrubs, which have not as yet particular names assigned them, but go under the general denomination of liaimes or rattans; these twine round the trees in a surprizing manner, and secure them from the violence of the hurricanes; of the bark of these they make strong cords, which are tougher and more serviceable than those made of bark.

The mapou-tree, is as penetrable to a knife as a turnip, but it is of a poisonous nature. The bastard cinnamon-tree is large; its timber resembles that of the walnut-tree, and its wood is much valued by cabinet makers. The iron wood and stinking wood trees are common, as are likewise the sandal wood tree, the vacoac small palm, the latanier, the mangrove, which is a very large kind of fern, and grows in the land of the sea.

The real or black ebony tree, grows very high and thick, has a bark of a dark colour; and the leaves which resemble those of myrtle, are of a deep green. The ebony trees, after being cut down, are buried under the ground for some time, which it is said improves the jetty black. The wood, being very fine and beautiful, is used in various Mosaic inlaid works, and toys; the qualities are, being hard, heavy, of an admirable black, and bearing a high polish. The ebony of this island is reckoned the finest in the world: but since the Europeans have discovered so many methods of giving other hard woods a beautiful black colour, and an elegant polish, this wood is on that account not quite so much in request as formerly.

Many vegetable productions, which have been brought into this island by order of government, transplanted by private persons, or imported by the desire of some of the settled inhabitants, have greatly increased. These are distinguished under four classes; namely, 1. The plants, which, being once sown afterwards grow spontaneously by resowing themselves, and thus become naturalized. 2. Articles of cultivation. 3. The produce of the kitchen garden. 4. The produce of the flower garden.

Those of the first class, consist of a kind of indigo, purslain, water-creffes, dandelion, wormwood, mullen; the bul-rush, which is green for about five months in the year; white grass, which was introduced first of all for forage, but none of the cattle will eat it, and its increase is now so great, that it may justly be deemed one of the plagues of husbandry; the brette, a species of the morell, with a prickly leaf, but pleasant of taste, and of a purgative nature; there are two species of the brette, one of which is served up at table in the manner of spinach, and the other is used as a medicine.

The cassia root is one of the plants which are the objects of cultivation. It was transplanted hither from Ame-

rica, and grows in great plenty; it is of great service in subsisting the negroes, who are allowed three pounds of it daily. Maiz or Turkish, and mamoe, are common; as are wheat, rice, millet, fatague, a fine kind of grass brought from Madagascar, and tobacco; but the latter is very indifferent. Vegetables, it has been observed, in general degenerate here; and that they who wish to have them tolerable good, are obliged to be supplied with fresh seed from the cape of Good Hope, or Europe, and experiments have been made, but without success, to propagate sainfoin, trefoil, hemp, flax, and hops.

The vegetables of the third class which are propagated and grow here, are, leeks and onions, celery, lettuce, endive, fennel, parsley, cauliflowers, cabbage, burnet, garden purslain, sage, asparagus, carrots, parsneps, turneps, fassifras, radishes, beet-roots, European potatoes very small, Indian potatoes very large, saffron, ginger, pistachio-nuts, chives; also cherville, sorrel, garden cressles, spinach, strawberries, pomegranates, pine-apples, pepper, gourds, cucumbers, water melons, melons, pumpkins, artichoaks, French beans, and peas.

With respect to the flower gardens, attempts have been made to cultivate a variety of flowers here, but they have never succeeded; the only productions from Europe being the tuberose, lark's foot, large daisy of China, and a small species of pinks. The African exotics are the flowering shrub, called belle immortelle, or immortal beauty of the cape; a reed which bears a group of leaves, white in the inside, and violet coloured without; a kind of tulip, bearing but two leaves, which always adhere to the ground. These flowers are all without smell; and even those transplanted from Europe, when cultivated here, lose their agreeable fragrancly. And it has been remarked in general, that no plants bear flowers here of a pleasant smell.

Among those which flourish here, are, aloes, rose-trees, jassmines, myrtles, a flower called the shoe-maker flower; the poincillade, a kind of bramble; jalop flowers, the vine of Madagascar, which is only a rattan, with which cradles are made, but it bears a yellow flower. The franchipanier, an inferior kind of jassmine, the Indian ilac, and the mongris, which has some resemblance both to the jassmine and the orange tree.

Here are found some oak, pine, fir, cherry, apricot, medlar, apple, pear, olive, fig, and mulberry-trees; but they are in general much degenerated with respect to size, many of the fruit trees only blossom, and scarce bear any fruit, unless we except the peach tree, which produces some fruit, and the vines transplanted hither bear grapes, but a kind of white louse is very destructive to both. The cotton tree, sugarcane, and coffee-tree, succeed tolerably well. The polehe is a tree that affords a pleasant shade; and the bambou is useful in various domestic matters. The banana is very common, and the blacks are exceedingly fond of its fruit. They are treated with it in great plenty every new-year's day; and they usually count their years of sorrow and servitude by the number of banana feasts they have regaled at. The badamier yields a kind of almond; the avacat serves as a sweetmeat; the jaca tree furnishes a large fruit, which is rather agreeable to the taste. The gonyavo tree is a kind of medlar; and the jamroe tree resembles a rose tree, but bears a small fruit of a sweetish, but insipid taste.

Orange and citron trees abound here, though the fruits of each are but indifferently tasted. The cocoa-trees, however, produce nuts which are very delicious. Date, palm, sago, &c. are found here, but in no great perfection. The tamarind tree has a beautiful head; its leaves are spread during the day, but closed at night, like most other leguminous plants: its pod contains a mucilage, which makes excellent lemonade. It may be remarked upon the whole, that the exotics of Africa, are best calculated for transplanting hither, as the climate of this island is rather too cold for Asiatic vegetables, and too hot for those of Europe.

As to the animals of the island of Mauritius, the only quadrupedes natural to it are monkies and rats. The monkies are of a middling size, of a reddish grey cast, with long tails. They frequently go in droves, and pillage the houses. When they are on the scout, they depute one of their number to ascend the highest tree, or the point of a rock; and if any danger is apprehended, he cries out to alarm the rest, when they all immediately decamp: this watchman has sometimes been unfortunate enough to be shot by the sailors.

This island has always been pestered with great numbers of rats, insomuch that the Dutch are said to have abandoned it on that account. They are much the same as those of Europe, from whence it is supposed they were originally brought. The havock these animals make here

is almost incredible, particularly to the corn and fruits ; and we are told, that a whole field of maize has been known to be destroyed by them in a single night.

The feathered race are not very numerous, or in great variety in this island. But among them is one called corbigeaux, which is reckoned the best game they have ; but they are very difficult to catch. Parrots are tolerably plentiful, but none very handsome. There is also a species of the paroquets ; they are about the size of sparrows, and have green bodies, with grey heads. Another of their birds is called by the natives pailleneus, and by the English the tropic bird. Of these there are two sorts, one of which is all white, and the other variegated, having the body white, the beak black, and the tail and claws red. They build their nests in the woods, but are generally found near the sea, and are so familiar, that they are easily caught. The woods abound with blackbirds, which are a kind of game greatly admired by the natives. There are also two kinds of pigeons, one of which, though pleasant to the taste, is of so bad a quality, that they who eat of them are thrown into strong convulsions.

Great numbers of toadouroux are found near the sea-side ; these are a kind of amphibious crab that make burrows under ground, like moles ; they run very fast ; and will snap their claws by way of defence, when attacked.

The most extraordinary creature here is that called bernard l'hermite ; it is a kind of lobster, whose hinder part is not provided with a shell ; but it instinctively lodges itself in empty shells which it finds on the shore. They run together in great numbers, each with its house after it, which, as it advances in growth, it abandons for a larger one.

Insects are extremely numerous in this island, the most destructive among which are the grasshoppers, which sometimes light upon a field like a fall of snow, when they eat up the verdure in the course of a night. Ants are equally mischievous in houses, where they prey upon every kind of provision, which it is difficult to secure from them. Here are likewise wasps, spiders, various kinds of flies, centipedes, and lizards. Moths, or small butterflies, so infest the houses after dark, that they are obliged to put their candles into glass cylinders. These flies draw into the houses a very beautiful lizard : it is about five inches long, and has bright and sparkling eyes ; it climbs along the walls, and lives upon flies and other insects : they are not in the least mischievous ; but, on the contrary, so tame, that if sugar is thrown on the ground, they will immediately come and take it. But the greatest enemy to these insects is the spider, some of which have bodies as big as a nut, with large paws covered with hair. Their webs are so strong that even small birds are sometimes caught in them. They are particularly serviceable in destroying the centipedes and wasps.

An insect called formicaleo, proves very destructive to the ants here ; and another, named canerelas, is equally so, of which there are three sorts : the most common are about the size of a cockchafer, of a reddish brown : another of them is flat, and of a grey colour. They are very destructive to furniture and books ; and the houses are greatly annoyed with them in wet weather.

It is observed by a late celebrated writer, that the temperature of this climate is so favourable to the propagation of insects, that in a short time the fruits would be eaten up by them, and the island itself become uninhabited, were it not that most of the fruits of these meridional countries are clothed with a thick rind, and afterwards with a skin, a very hard shell, and an aromatic bark, like the orange or citron ; in-somuch that the flies can introduce their eggs into very few of them. Many of these noxious animals are at perpetual war with each other. The formicaleos lay snares for the ants ; the green fly pierces the canerelas ; the lizard hunts the butterfly ; the spiders spread nets for every insect that flies ; and the hurricane, which rages once a year, annihilates not only a great part of the prey, but of the devourers also.

The animals of the quadruped kind, brought into this island from other countries, and which may be called domestic, are horses, oxen, sheep, and hogs. The horses are very small, and so dear, that a common one cannot be purchased for less than a hundred pistoles. Here is one sort of oxen, of the Madagascar breed ; but they are not so good as those from Europe, nor will the cows of that breed give half the quantity of milk. The pork is at least equal in quality to that of Europe ; but it will not receive the salt, on account of the peculiar acidity of that article. The sheep are large and fat, but they are apt to lose their wool.

Great numbers of wild goats, hogs, hares, and stags are in the woods. The latter are particularly numerous ; and

as their flesh is exceeding good from the beginning of April to the end of August, they therefore afford a very ample supply of food for the natives.

Their poultry consists of various kinds ; but the most common are ducks and fowls, the former of which were brought from Manila, and the latter from Europe. They have also a small species of fowl from China, whose flesh is exceeding delicate. The wild fowl are pintatoes, Chinese pheasants, pigeons, and three sorts of partridges : these birds, the better to secure themselves from being destroyed by the rats, always roost on the tops of trees.

They have a very beautiful small bird, called the titmouse, which has a number of white spots on the wings. There is also another from Bengal, called the cardinal, some of the plumage is of a party coloured grey ; but the head, neck, and belly, at a certain time of the year, is of a lively red.

The martin is the most propagating bird in this island, and in size, colour, and aptitude to talk, greatly resembles the English starling. It will perch upon, and peck at beasts without fear ; but its chief prey is the grasshopper, which it pursues with an unwearied perseverance. They always fly in pairs, and constantly assemble at sun set in very considerable flocks. The shooting of them is prohibited, though their flesh is very indifferent eating.

In this island are two sorts of birds brought from the cape, one of which is called the gardeners friend. It is of a brown colour, about the size of a large sparrow, and lives upon worms, snails, and small serpents, which it not only eats when pressed by hunger, but collects an ample store of, by sticking them on the prickles of the hedges. The other cape-bird is much like the English sky-lark, and is the only feathered inhabitant of this island that is heard to sing. They were first brought here as curiosities ; but some of them escaped to the woods ; where they bred so fast, that there are now great numbers of them.

Here are two sorts of foreign fish ; one of which is the Chinese gold fish ; these thrive equally well as in their own climate ; but as they increase in bulk, they lose their beauty. The other is called Gourami, and was imported from Batavia. It is a fresh water fish, about the size of a salmon ; but the taste of it is far superior ; and in India it is preferred to any other kind of fish.

It has been several times attempted to introduce frogs into this country, that they might eat the eggs which the musketoes lay on the standing water ; but every attempt has proved unsuccessful, either from the difference of climate, or some other unknown cause.

Mr. Buffon takes notice of an animal of a very singular nature, which he calls the great Madagascar bat ; but as it is common not only to that island, but to the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius, and there are great numbers of them in the latter, we shall here describe it ; previous to which, we observe, that the bats seen in Great Britain are inoffensive, and, from their size, incapable of injuring mankind : being also not sufficiently numerous to incommode them ; but the race of bats here are truly formidable : a single one is a dangerous enemy ; but when they unite in flocks, they become really dreadful. Desmarchais says, that if the inhabitants of the African coast were to eat animals of the bat kind, as they do in the East Indies, they would never want a supply of provisions. Here are such numbers of them, that when they fly they obscure the setting sun : early in the morning they are seen sticking upon the tops of trees, and clinging together in great heaps. The Europeans often amuse themselves in shooting them ; and the negroes are expert in killing them ; but they would not eat them if they were ready to perish with hunger, as they always regard the bat with horror.

It is about a foot long from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail ; and its extent, from the tip of one wing to that of the other, is about four feet. It has large canine teeth : that is to say, four cutting teeth above, and four below. The nose is black and sharp, the ears large and naked, and the talons crooked, strong, and compressed sideways ; but it is without a tail. These animals differ in colour, some being of a bright red, others brown, and a third sort of a dark, dusky colour. It resembles the common bat in its internal formation, the shape of its wings, and manner of its flying. When these creatures repose, they stick themselves on the tops of the tallest trees, and hang with their heads downward ; but at other times they frequently settle upon animals, and even upon man himself. They devour indiscriminately fruits, flesh, and insects ; and are, in particular, so extremely fond of the juice of the palm tree, that they will sometimes intoxicate themselves with it, till they drop to the ground. At night they may be heard in the forests, at the distance of more than

than two miles, with a most horrible din; but they usually retire at the approach of day. Nothing is safe from the depredations of these noxious creatures: they destroy fowls and domestic animals, if they are not properly secured, and frequently fasten upon the inhabitants themselves, attacking them in the face, and inflicting very terrible wounds.

The first mentioned author observes, that it is probable the ancients took their idea of harpies from those fierce and voracious creatures, as they both seem to concur in many parts of the description, being equally cruel, deformed, uncleanly, and greedy. That notwithstanding their disagreeable nature, the Indians eat these animals, and say the flesh is very good, especially at particular times of the year, when they have more fat than usual; and even some of the French here, and in the isle of Bourbon, have brought themselves to use them, in order to give a relish to their bouillons; but negroes, as we observed before, hold them in the utmost abhorrence, and will not touch them upon any account. Persons have been attacked by these creatures, and have sometimes passed from a sound sleep into eternity; for the bat is so dextrous a bleeder, as to insinuate its sharp pointed tongue into a vein unperceived, and to suck the blood till it is satiated, at the same time fanning with its wings, and agitating the air, which, in hot regions, lulls the person attacked by them into a still sounder sleep. It is therefore dangerous to be in any respect exposed to the incursions of these noxious animals, and especially to repose in the open air.

About the month of September, whales are often seen to the windward of this island; but they are smaller than in the northern seas; the negroes have a method of harpooning them. The vicille is a blackish fish, and their flesh in some measure resembles the cod fish, in taste and make. Sea cows are sometimes caught, and their flesh tastes much like that of beef. The fish caught on the windward side of the island is unwholesome.

The most esteemed fish for eating here is a kind of turbot called the water pullet, the fat of which is green, and exceeding delicious. The hog fish has a head like a pike, and upon its back are seven points, as large as its body, the pricks of which are very venomous; a membrane, streaked with brown stripes, and resembling the wing of a bat, unites them. Many of the fish near this island are of a poisonous quality, particularly the white ones, with a large belly and great head, such as the captain and caranguee; and it may be observed respecting the rest, that the smaller the fish, the greater the danger.

There is also a fish called the paroquet, from its near resemblance to the bird of that name; they also, like them, go together in numbers. It is green, hath a yellow head, and a kind of white crooked beak. Their eels are of the conger kind, furnish but bad food, and are very dangerous to those who attempt to bathe in the creeks where they are found, being capable of killing any person they attack. They are in general eight feet in length, to the full as thick as a man's leg, and exceedingly voracious.

Lobsters, cray-fish, and crabs, are found in great plenty here; the two former are of a fine blue colour, marbled with black; and the latter is principally grey. One species hath the eyes in two long tubes, like telescopes, which, when not in use, are deposited in groves along the side of the shell. Among the shell-fish, here is one of a very singular nature, for the usual order seems to be reversed; the animal is on the outside of the shell, and the whole appearing as a shapeless mass, soft and membranous; in the middle of which is a single bone, or shell, smooth and arched. The tulier, an enormous fish of the oyster kind, is common here; the shell of which is supposed to be the largest of any to be met with in the ocean.

Having thus given an account of the vegetables and animals, both natural and imported, and likewise the marine productions of this island, we shall next give a description of the different inhabitants, their customs, manners, treatment of their slaves, &c.

The island of Mauritius, when first discovered, was uninhabited. The first French people who established themselves here, were a few husbandmen from the isle of Bourbon. These people were simple in their manners, industrious in their callings, and hospitable in their behaviour. When the importance of this island was known, from its situation in the course from Europe to the East Indies, many persons came to settle here, particularly several who were sent by the French East India Company. These, by their tyrannical and avaricious behaviour, soon became exceeding offensive to the people in general; commerce employed their thoughts, but they had not the least

idea of humanity; they supposed they came so far to get money, not to do good; and, instead of clearing the lands for the purposes of agriculture, they cleared them to erect dwelling houses and warehouses, which they might sell at an exorbitant price to new settlers. Complaints were indeed made of their arbitrary proceedings, but the complaints were too inconsiderable to obtain redress, and the aggressors too great to be punished.

After this, many sea-faring people settled here, who hoped to gain great advantages from the commerce carrying on between Europe and India; but neither the manners or morals were in the least mended by these newcomers.

The French East India Company soon afterwards sent a military force hither, commanded by officers whose families were very good, while their pockets were but low. These, having more pride than money, did not chuse to keep company with the merchants or clerks, because they were sordid; with the planters, because they were mean; nor with the sailors, because they were brutish; so they associated with each other; and hence remained as poor in this island, as they had been in Old France, from whence they set out.

Some time afterwards, some of the king's troops touched here, and several of them became settlers; but these entertained a sovereign contempt for the troops of the company, and the rest of the inhabitants; and this dislike was retained and augmented, by the disdain the other parties expressed towards them.

Some missionaries of the order of St. Lazarus, were the next settlers; when all the endeavours of these were to reign as uncontrouled over the minds, as the company's principal servants did over the lives and properties of the inhabitants.

Then followed a succession of scheming merchants, who introduced monopolies, and all the chicanery of trade; and at length, to complete this heterogeneous mixture, the late war (which commenced in 1756) occasioned the scum of Europe and Asia to emigrate to the isle of France; bankrupts, ruined libertines, thieves, prostitutes, and wretches of every cast, driven by their crimes from the former, or by the bad success of the French arms from the latter, sought refuge here. On the arrival of this set of men, the complaints, both general and particular, of the inhabitants, were increased; every character was traduced with an Asiatic ingenuity, hitherto unknown to the calumniators of Europe. No woman was now looked upon as chaste, nor any man as honest; all confidence and esteem were at an end. Thus they thought to reduce all mankind to their own level, by vilifying all without distinction.

At length, in 1765, the French East India company yielded up to the king this island, but little benefit seems to have been derived from this change; the inhabitants appear to be neither wealthy nor happy. An ingenious French officer, who resided there upwards of a twelve-month, gives no favourable idea of the state of society in this secluded spot. "Discord, (says he) reigns all over the island, and has entirely extirpated that love of society, which might be expected to prevail among Frenchmen banished to a desert, surrounded by the seas, and at the end of the world. Each man is discontented; each man wants to get a fortune, and to leave the place. To hear them talk, one would think the island would be once more uninhabited, every man declaring he will go away next year; and some of them have held this intention for thirty years past, yet remain to make the same declaration the year ensuing." European goods are dearer at the isle of France than in India, and Indian goods dearer than in Europe.

There are but few married people in the town, but those men who live upon their plantations marry: the women seldom go to town but to a ball, or to confess at Easter. They are most passionately fond of dancing. The women are rather pale, but well made, and in general handsome. They have naturally a good flow of wit and spirits, and if better educated, would be most agreeable companions, but many are so ignorant as to be unable to read. At their meetings they are reserved and silent. Each woman brings with her some secret pretensions, either from the fortune, the employ, or the birth of the husband; others reckon upon their youth or their beauty. An European looks with disdain upon a Creole, who as often looks upon the European as an adventurer. The women here are not celebrated for their chastity; but, says our author, they are, in my opinion, far more deserving than the men, by whom they are neglected for the black slaves. Such of the women

women as are really virtuous, are highly to be commended, as it is by no means owing to their education that they are so. They have at once to combat with the heat of the climate, the indifference of their husbands, and the prodigality and ardour of young officers, skilled in seduction, and regardless of repulse. In other respects they have very many good qualities: they are domestic, sober, very rarely drinking any thing but water, and neat in their apparel to an extreme. The dress most common here, is of muslin, trimmed with rose-coloured taffety.

They are extravagantly fond of their children, who run about the house naked soon after they are born; are never put in swaddling cloaths, but are frequently bathed, eat fruit as they think proper, live without care and without study, and soon grow strong and robust. The puberty of both sexes makes a very early appearance. Girls marry at eleven years of age. The children are suffered to exercise their caprices upon the poor slaves to a degree of tyranny beyond all bounds. So that their depravity is only equalled by their ignorance. Indeed, the principal people send their children very young to France for education, from whence they return with vices, perhaps more amiable, but still more dangerous, than they before possessed.

On this island are scarcely four hundred planters. There are about an hundred women of condition, ten only of whom live in the town. The evening is their time of visiting, and for want of conversation they game, or soon grow tired of each other. At eight o'clock the evening gun fires, and every body goes home on hearing that signal.

Indians, or negroes, are the black inhabitants of this island. The Indians are Malabars, or Malayans, who come from Pondicherry in the East Indies, in order to article themselves as servants, for a certain term of years. They are almost all of handicraft trades; are sober and thrifty, but lascivious, and live in a suburb called the Camp of the Blacks. They are clad in long muslin gowns, wear a turban on their heads, have gold rings in their ears, and silver bracelets on their wrists. Some few, who are not fond of farming work, engage themselves as running footmen to the principal and richest people. These being equipped with a handsome cane, and a poniard at the girdle, affect great state, and deliver the most trivial messages with such air of profound respect, as to make a truly farcical appearance.

The negroes are brought from Madagascar, where a slave may be bought for a barrel of powder, for a few muskets, linen, or especially piastres. The greatest price paid is 50 crowns (7l. 10s.) or rarely so much. These are neither so black, nor so badly featured, as the natives of Guinea; but resemble the Europeans in their features, and in their complexion incline to a copper colour. They are in general active, ingenious, grateful for favours, and faithful when well used; and have a quicker sense of an injury done to any one they love, than of any personal insult to themselves. After having been purchased at Madagascar, they are landed, with only a rag about their loins, at the Isle of France, where, being sold, it frequently happens that husbands, wives, brothers, sisters, friends, lovers, &c. are cruelly torn asunder, and, bidding each other a long farewell, are driven in the greatest anguish to the respective plantations for which they are bought. Some, upon these occasions, have been known to become frantic and desperate, and afterwards hang or poison themselves, which is to be imputed to the terrors they conceive from the apprehensions of the dreadful fate to which they imagine they are doomed; for it is a prevailing notion with some tribes of the Madagascar negroes, that the white people intend eating their flesh, making red urine of their blood, and gunpowder of their bones; nor are these strange ideas to be wondered at, when we consider the innumerable barbarities of the whites, which have given occasion to suggest them. They frequently secrete themselves in the woods, where they are hunted by parties of soldiers, and by other negroes, with dogs. Some of the inhabitants form parties of pleasure for this purpose, and put up a negro as they would a wild beast; and if they cannot hunt him down, will shoot him, like any wild animal; then his head is cut off, and brought in triumph to town upon a stick, the unexampled trophy of the most atrocious cruelty.

These deserters are called Maron-negroes, who, being sheltered by immense forests, sometimes collect into a troop of two or three hundred. When a woman in any of these parties, is delivered of a child, it is immediately killed, lest their retreat should be discovered by its cries. And when any of these negroes are taken without being hunted, his

sentence for the first offence is to be severely flogged, and to lose an ear; for the second, to be still more severely whipped, and ham-strung; but the third offence is punished with death, which is executed by hanging or breaking on the wheel.

Some of these slaves have been baptized, but that hath given no encouragement to others to become Christians; for those who are baptized are no better used than those who are not; as the religious sentiments of the negroes are not so much attended to, as the interest of the planter to whom they belong.

As to the commerce of this island, the inhabitants of it receive most of their utensils from China, their apparel from India, their slaves from Madagascar, most of the articles of provender which they consume from the Cape of Good Hope, their money from Spain; their laws and governments from France; their follies from various nations both white and black; and their vices, at the head of which stand inhumanity and avarice, from the devil, the arch enemy of mankind.

Trade here is greatly clogged by their paper currency, which is payable in France, at six months after sight, but at the best rate of exchange it bears thirty-three per cent. discount, frequently fifty per cent. Ready money in this island is reckoned to produce thirty-three per cent. in eighteen months.

A learned writer has observed concerning this island, that notwithstanding the depravity of its inhabitants and the inconvenience of the climate, it is of the utmost political consequence, and is at present one of the finest, as it always was one of the most important and improveable spots upon the globe. Admiral Boscawen in 1748, with six line of battle ships, made an hostile visit to it; but found it to be so well defended both by nature and art, that he did not venture to attack it; and no attempt has been since made to wrest from the French this valuable settlement, which renders the British possessions in Asia insecure.

SECT. II.

Containing a Description of the Isle of BOURBON and the COMORA Islands.

THE island of Bourbon, which lies in twenty-one degrees south latitude, and fifty-four degrees east longitude, was first discovered in 1545, by a Portuguese, named Mascarenhas, who called it by his own name; however, he made no settlement. It soon after became a place of refuge for pirates, who cohabited with negro women from Madagascar. They fixed here about the year 1657. The French India company had a factory and a governor. The pirates gradually decreased in number whilst the French were augmented by the frequent arrival of their countrymen from Madagascar. The last of these pirates, whose name was Adam, died at the age of an hundred and four years.

At a distance the island appears like a part of a sphere, with very high mountains, the land of which is cultivated to the height of eight hundred toises. Here are three inaccessible pikes, which are reckoned one thousand six hundred perpendicular toises to the summit. The whole island is sixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It is only forty leagues to the leeward of the isle of France, and a vessel can go from thence to Bourbon in a day, but a month is frequently spent in returning. In this island is a volcano.

The principal place in Bourbon, is St. Dennis, the residence of the governor and council. As the shore here is very steep, and the sea rolls with a great surf, so that no vessel can come to the land, a draw-bridge has been contrived for unloading of ships, which projects more than fourscore feet over the sea, and is sustained by iron chains. At the end of this bridge is fixed a rope ladder, which those who would land must climb. This is the only place in the whole island where any one can land without first jumping into the sea.

St. Paul, another town on the island, is situated on the side of a great lake of fresh water, of which a port probably might be made. When the wind blows into the bay of St. Paul, there is no getting out of it; and if a vessel should run ashore, she must infallibly be lost, the sea breaking upon a very high sand. The want of a harbour is an inconvenience which admits of no remedy, and greatly lessens the value and importance of this fruitful and healthy spot.

Sixty thousand blacks are reckoned to live in Bourbon, and five thousand white inhabitants. It is thrice as populous as the island of France, on which it depends for its export traffic. It is also much better cultivated, having produced twenty thousand quintals of corn, and as much coffee, besides rice and other provisions for home consumption. Herds of oxen are not scarce here. The French king pays fifteen livres per cent. for corn (thirteen shillings sterling) and the inhabitants sell a quintal of coffee for forty-five livres (one pound nineteen shillings sterling) in piaſtres, and seventy livres in paper.

This island abounds in all kinds of refreshments, and the air is particularly excellent. The French East India ships touch here to take in water and provisions; for the roads are good for shipping, but there is no harbour in the whole island. Here is plenty of good wood and water, and the face of the country is beautifully diversified with hills and dales, pastures and woods, and watered by excellent springs and rivulets. In one of the mountains there is a small volcano, which discharges fire, and fills the neighbourhood with a bituminous matter; and the flames are perceivable, in the night time, at twenty-five leagues distance.

The soil of Bourbon is more sandy than that of the Mauritius; and is mixed, at some distance from land, with the same kind of small pebbles with which the sea is covered; from which it appears, that either the island has risen out of the ocean, or the sea has withdrawn itself. Some of the trees here are fit for building vessels. The shrub that bears coffee, the tamarisk, the cocoa tree, the tree from whence benzoin distils, the cotton, aloe, and ebony tree are produced here. The black ebony is less esteemed than the yellow; and the wild coffee which is very plentiful, is exceeding good. Many of the trees and plants produce odoriferous gums; and here are plenty of oranges, lemons, tobacco, palms, white pepper, &c. This island likewise abounds with black cattle, hogs, goats and boars, the flesh of which is admirable, on account of their feeding on tortoises; many kinds of fowls, pigeons, turtle-doves, parrots, &c. The surrounding seas and intersecting rivers, rivulets, &c. supply the inhabitants with abundance of fish; and on the shore are found great quantities of ambergris, corals, and beautiful shells. Here are no crocodiles, snakes, musketoos, or any of those vermin, or other venomous creatures, which in most other parts of the torrid zone are so exceedingly troublesome.

The best animal found here, whether for taste or wholesomeness, is the land tortoise; and the most agreeable fruit is the anana. The tortoise is of the same figure with those of Europe, but of a very different size. They say it lives a prodigious number of years, that several ages are required to bring it to its full growth, and that it can live several months without food. They have kept some young ones in the island, which have increased only a few inches in bulk at the end of twenty years.

The anana is a fruit of an oblong form, and of the bigness of a melon; it is covered with short leaves, disposed very much in the same manner as the divisions of a pine apple, and it is crowned with a tuft of leaves something longer; it grows on a plant resembling an artichoke, and has the taste of several fruits, but that of a quince more than any other.

There is in this island a very singular kind of bat, which one might call the flying fox, since it very much resembles this animal in size, hair, head, ears, and even teeth. The female hath two teats, and, under each wing, a bag to carry her young in. The length of the wings is about four feet from one extremity to the other. The flesh of them is so delicious to the taste, that the people go a hunting for them with the same eagerness as we shoot for partridges in Europe.

Of late years, vines have been successfully planted here, and now considerable quantities of different wines are annually produced; but the greatest inconveniences here arise from the terrible hurricanes and storms, which are not only exceeding violent, but very frequent; hence shipwrecks are common, and the most horrid devastations become familiar to the eye.

A French writer observes, that though this island is in many respects agreeable, it does not come near to the beauty of the coasts of Java and Sumatra; plains, which are covered with orange, cocoa, and other fruit trees, with a number of rivulets that water them, hills adorned with delightful groves, forests for evergreen, and the most charming and splendid towns and villages.

With respect to the original inhabitants of this island, we are told by a French officer, who visited both this and

the isle of France, that the manners of the first inhabitants of the isle of Bourbon were very simple; the greater number of the houses were not made to shut; a lock, was a curiosity. Some people even put their money in a tortoise shell over their door. They dressed in blue cloth, went barefooted, and lived upon rice and coffee; they imported but little from Europe: content to live without luxury, they consequently lived without want. They joined to this moderation the virtues that ever attend it; good faith in commerce, and generosity in their proceedings. As soon as a stranger appeared, the inhabitants came to him, invited him to their houses, and entertained him with the most generous hospitality. The same writer observes, that the last war in the Indies made an alteration in their manners. In this war the volunteers of Bourbon distinguished themselves by their bravery; but the stuffs of Asia, and the military distinctions of France, thereby got footing in the island. The children, richer than their parents, required to be treated with greater respect. The attention of the fathers being chiefly fixed upon their sons, they send them to France, from whence they seldom return: hence it is that in this island there are more than five hundred marriageable girls, who are likely to die without husbands. They have now no enjoyment of an unnoticed good fortune, but seek in Europe pleasures and honours, in exchange for domestic happiness, and the quiet and simplicity of a country life.

The Comora islands are five in number, the largest of which gives name to the whole; the other four are distinguished by the names of Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazeja, and Johanna. These islands lie opposite the shore of Zanguebar, and north of the great island of Madagascar, and in twelve degrees fifteen minutes south latitude.

Comora is the most northerly of these islands; and though the most considerable in point of size, is in all other respects the most insignificant, for it has no safe harbour for ships; and the natives are so untractable and uncivilized, that no Europeans have ventured to stop here for a considerable time. For this perhaps they have a sufficient reason, as it was too common for the Portuguese, especially at their first landing here, to take advantage of the simplicity of the inhabitants unacquainted with arms, and incapable of defence, for they not only robbed them of their property, and committed the most dreadful outrages, but also made them captives, and frequently divested them of every earthly enjoyment, by forcing them on board their ships, and then selling them for slaves. This may have given them a traditional aversion to strangers in general, and particularly to Europeans; and it is not improbable, that the revenge they might take on the next who visited them, without distinguishing the innocent from the guilty, may have gained them the inhospitable character which they still retain, and have occasioned them to look with abhorrence on those who had proved themselves strangers to the common dictates of humanity.

Mayotta, is said to be rather low, but to abound with provisions and fruit. The French commodore Beaulieu, in the narrative of his expedition to the East Indies, informs us, that it is cool, moist, covered with verdure, and inhabited all along the sea shore. "The tide (says he) carried us westward all along the coast, to a point where we came in sight of a ship; upon which I sent out our long-boat with ten musqueteers, who brought me word, that it was a vessel of forty tons bound for Mecca, and that the captain taking us for Dutch ships, had run all the goods on shore. The captain of this vessel shewed me two letters, one from an English commander called Martin, and another from captain Banner, to inform their countrymen, that they had taken in refreshments at that place; especially fruit; that they had found no water; and that linen cloth and paper were proper commodities for that place; adding that care ought to be taken, not to disoblige the inhabitants, who, though they appeared friendly, were able to do them a great deal of mischief.

"The road being surrounded with rocks, the Arabian master advised me not to attempt landing without fetching a pilot from the shore, and accordingly I sent my boat along with him, and in the afternoon he returned with two of the inhabitants, who, before sun-set brought our ship safe to an anchor. I then sent the Arabian master back to his own ship, with full assurances of the innocence of our designs, and the friendly disposition of the French, together with a letter to the same purpose, to the king of the island, addressed in Spanish.

"The king afterwards sent some of his chief favourites to assure us of his friendship, and readiness to supply with whatever the country afforded. Upon this, I sent him

him a present of a silver hilted hanger, a couple of very handsome knives, a ream of paper, and a looking-glass, which he received with pleasure; and, in return, sent me a young kid and some fruit. I at the same time desired the Arabian captain, who was then on shore, to buy me some provisions, promising to send such commodities as were proper to be given in exchange. Upon this, the captain sent me word, that the inhabitants of the island were of such a particular humour, that they would not conclude a bargain of the value of half a rial in a day's time; and would not buy a yard of cloth, without calling together all their neighbours and relations to fix the price they should give for it. I was also informed, that the inhabitants were so overstocked with rials, that they set no value on them, having obtained a great quantity from a Portuguese carrack which had been cast away upon that island about three years before.

"Having, on the next day, observed two ships belonging to that country, I had the captains brought on board, when they informed me, that they came from the island of Mayotta, that they were laden with rice and dried fish, and were bound for Monbaze. The next day they supplied me with as much rice, pease, and hung-beef, as would serve us for some months; of which I was very glad, as I could buy nothing of the inhabitants without infinite loss of time. Besides, I began to suspect their honesty; for the day before, when we were sounding, in order to come to an anchor, some of them made a signal for us to come over a place where we observed a long ridge of rocks; whence I presumed, the advantage they had made by the shipwreck of the Portuguese carrack, had tempted them to wish us the same fate; and as I also found the water brackish, we left the place, and pursued our voyage."

Angazeja is inhabited by Moors, who trade with different parts of the continent, and most of the islands to the eastward, in cattle, fruits, and the other commodities of the island, exchanging them for calicoes and other cotton cloths. The bread used in this island is of the kernel of the cocoa-nut, boiled or broiled, and spread over with honey: their drink is palm wine, a juice extracted from the sugar cane, and suffered to ferment, or the milk of the cocoa-nut.

They never let their women be seen by strangers, without permission from one of the chiefs, or an order to see them, which the stranger brings with him. Many of them write and read Arabic with great facility; and some of them understand the Portuguese, which they learn from their intercourse with Mozambique, whither they trade in vessels of forty tons burden. The houses are built of stone, and lime made of calcined oyster shells, with which the walls and roofs are plastered in a very elegant manner, and the roofs and windows are covered with palm leaves, which serve as a defence against rain, and the scorching heat of the sun. The constitution of this island is purely aristocratical, being under the government of the lords.

Mohilla, is an island very seldom visited, not only from the dislike the inhabitants have to strangers, but also from there not being any convenient place for the reception of ships. It is under the direction of a sultan, whose children, whether male or female, share in his authority, and govern in quality of viceroys in different parts of the island. All, however, bear the title of sultans, though they are, in some respects, subordinate to the authority of the father: each has his guards, his crown, sceptre, and all the ensigns and pageantry of majesty, together with a brilliant court and numerous household. The sultan never goes abroad without being attended by twenty of the principal persons in the island; upon which occasion, his dress is a long robe of striped calico, hanging from his shoulders to his heels, with a turban on his head. The people in general wear loose calico gowns, and are continually chewing areka, or betel, in the manner of the East-Indians, to whom they have a near affinity in their customs.

Johanna, as we hinted above, is the most frequented, and best known to Europeans, of all the Comora islands, on account of the safety of its road, and the civil disposition of its inhabitants; which, together with the fineness of the country, have induced the ships from Europe to touch here for refreshments in their passage to Bombay and the Malabar coasts of India. This island lies in twelve degrees twenty minutes south latitude, is thirty miles long, fifteen broad, and about ninety in circumference. Though some parts of it are exceeding mountainous, yet it is in general a very beautiful and fertile spot. The soil is naturally very good; and, from its being well watered by rivers, produces abundance of the chief necessaries of life.

When ships approach this island, they anchor in the road on the west side of it, where the hills, covered with evergreens, ending in a delightful valley, form the most pleasing landscape that the imagination can paint. The sailors usually pitch a tent on shore for the reception of the sick, when, such is the excellence of the climate, that those ever so much disabled with that dreadful disorder the scurvy, generally recover their health with surprising speed; which is probably as much owing to the salubrious influence of the earth, as to the variety of excellent refreshments with which the country abounds. Nevertheless the common sailors, who arrive hither in health, are sometimes in danger by their intemperance in eating the delicious fruits the island affords, of laying the foundation of distempers which break out when they go again to sea. It has also been said, that lying ashore is prejudicial to them, on account of the moist vapours diffused from the neighbouring hills; but it is probable that their not being sufficiently screened from the keenness of the night air, and the damps which arise from the earth, expose them to the greatest danger.

The ingenious Mr. Grose, and another English gentleman, by their account of a walk taken by them on this island the day after their arrival, have given us an opportunity of conveying to our readers a description of its beauties and natural productions; which we shall set down in their own words: "As we set out pretty early in the morning, says the writer, we made shift to penetrate about five miles into the country before the sun began to be any ways troublesome; and this was no small stretch, considering the mountainous way we had to go. We had fowling pieces with us, and the view of excellent sport in shooting, could we have reached the place where we perceived the game to lay; but we could not conquer the ascent of the hills, though we endeavoured to scramble up them on our hands and knees: we were obliged, therefore, to rest satisfied with what small birds presented themselves in the vallies and hills that were passable. We made our breakfast on pine-apples, and the milk of cocoa-nuts, which served to quench our thirst. About noon, coming to a beautiful piece of water, we seated ourselves in the shade by the banks of it, to make a second meal, as well as to enjoy the tinkling of several little springs and natural cascades that fell from the rocks, and, according to their distance, seemed to sound a gradation of notes, so as to form a kind of agreeable water music.

"The orange and lime-trees, which stood in great number about that spot of ground, bending under the weight of their fruit, diffused a most fragrant odour. There were also pine-apples which grew wild, of eleven and thirteen inches in circumference, of a much richer flavour than those I afterwards met with in India. Our guides too made us distinguish a number of goyava, and especially plumb-trees, the size of whose fruit is about that of a damascene, and leaves a pleasant relish on the palate for some minutes after it is eaten. All these growing promiscuously, and without the least arrangement or order, combined with the falls of water, and the stupendous height of the surrounding hills, covered with trees and verdure, and in their various breaks and projections exhibiting the boldest strokes of nature, altogether composed what might without exaggeration, be called a terrestrial paradise, compared to which the finest gardens in Europe, with their statues, artificial cascades, compartments, and all the refinements of human invention would appear poor indeed! here it was impossible for art to add any thing, but what would rather spoil than adorn the scenery.

"It was not then without regret that we quitted so charming a spot, after having feasted our eyes with the beauties of it; to which it may be mentioned, as no inconsiderable addition, that there was no fear of wild beasts or venomous creatures mixed with our pleasure, the island being so happy as to produce none. We returned then to our tent, well paid for the slight fatigue we had undergone in this little excursion."

They have, besides the fruit already mentioned, and many others common in the Indies, particularly a remarkable sort of sweet oranges of a small size, not exceeding that of a common apricot, but filled with a juice that has a much more delicious flavour than the larger sort generally imported here from Portugal, under the name of China oranges; and their being gathered ripe and fresh from the tree, renders their taste more agreeable.

A great number of monkeys of different kinds and sizes are in the woods; and also a beast about the bigness of a common monkey, with a head nearly resembling that of a fox; it has a lively piercing eye, its coat is woolly, and generally of a mouse colour; and its tail, which is about

three feet long, is variegated with circles of black, within an inch of each other, quite to the end; the natives call it a *mocawk*, and when taken young it soon grows exceeding tame: the country also abounds with squirrels, which are generally large and shy; but neither of an agreeable colour or well shaped.

The principal cattle in this island are oxen, which are very numerous, and of a middling size; like those in the East Indies, they are remarkable for differing from ours in having a large fleshy excrescence between their neck and back, which, when kept in pickle for some time, is generally preferred either to tongue or udder, it tasting like firm marrow; and their flesh is extremely sweet.

Fowls are here extremely good and fat; but our author observes, that he had no opportunity of tasting their game, of which they are said to have great variety; for as the natives are very indifferent sportsmen, either with net or gun, very few of them are caught.

The sea abounds with fish of different sorts, which they are very expert at catching. Among the rest, they have a particular species called the *parrot-fish*, which is beautified with the liveliest colours that can be imagined; it is about three feet and a half in length, and thick in proportion; it takes its name from the form of its mouth, which is hooked like the bill of a parrot; the fins are blue, as are also the eyes, which are very sprightly, and have a yellow iris; the scales are very large, and there are two rows of strong teeth in the mouth, with which it breaks open muscles and oysters. The flesh of this fish is very firm, and is esteemed delicious eating. They have likewise some flat fish that nearly resemble the turbot; and also thorn-backs, mullets, and several other sorts.

The inhabitants of this island are in general tall of stature, strong, and well proportioned; they have piercing eyes, long black hair, lips somewhat thick, and their complexions in general are of a colour between olive and black; but their women are rather more clumsily made than the other sex.

The dress of the common people is only a skull-cap of any sort of stuff, and a coarse wrapper round their loins; but those of superior rank have a kind of wide-sleeved shirt hanging over a pair of long drawers, and a waistcoat, which is either thick or thin, according to the season; few wear turbans, except those of high rank: these are also usually distinguished by the nails of their fingers and toes, which they suffer to grow to an immoderate length, and tinge them with *alhenna*, a yellowish red, furnished by a shrub that grows in the marshy places of the island. They usually carry large knives, or poniards, which are stuck in a gash they wear round their waists; some of them have silver or agate handles, but they have commonly carved wooden ones.

The women wear a short jacket and petticoat, with a sort of loose gown, and a veil to cover their faces. They usually adorn their arms and wrists with a number of bracelets made of silver, pewter, copper, iron, and glass, according to their rank and circumstances. Their fingers and toes, and the small of their legs, are likewise decked with chains and rings. Their ears are stuck so full of mock jewels, and ornaments of metal, that the lobes are in particular greatly dilated and weighed down, which, from their infancy, they are taught to consider as a singular embellishment.

Children of both sexes are suffered to go stark naked from the time of their birth till they are seven or eight years old; which proceeds less from any consideration of the heat of the climate, than from physical reasons; for they imagine that infants are more apt to be hurt by heat than by cold, and that the free access of the air to every part of the body is nutritious and more favourable to their growth, than their being heated by swathing and cloaths, which deprive them of a hardness conducive to health; and in case of any disposition to deformity, obstruct the free course of nature which strives to free itself from any imperfections. By this means they are also preserved from the galling and chafing of cloaths, which frequently occasion such crying and strainings as terminate in ruptures, if not carefully attended to.

The soil of this island is so naturally fertile, as to produce every thing they covet for food; so their constitutional indolence keeps them satisfied, without any attempts to improve it by tillage or cultivation. They chiefly subsist on milk and vegetables, both which they possess in great plenty and perfection. Instead of oil and vinegar to their sallads, which are of the lettuce kind, they use a liquid which has some resemblance to our treacle, and is a pre-

paration of the juice yielded from the cocoa-nut tree, by incision.

These people speak a corrupt Arabic, mixed with the Zanguebar tongue of the opposite part of the continent, from whence the Comora islands were probably first peopled: but those of the fairest complexion, who are generally of the best rank, or at least the most esteemed amongst them, derive their colour partly from the Arab mixture, and partly from their communication with Europeans, which was formerly much more common than it has been of late years.

In their manners, they still retain much of the simplicity of uncultivated nature. The mildness of the climate renders them indolent, and prone to venery. They frequently make use of the liberty granted them by their religion, which is that of Mahometanism, of divorcing their wives upon slight pretences, for the sake of novelty; they have usually two or three of them, and may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Though they are forward to beg whatever they like, they are far from being thievish. They treat the English in a very friendly manner, not merely from a principle of interest and convenience, though this has doubtless some influence, but also from a sense of gratitude, for the effectual assistance they formerly received from them in their wars with the Mohillans, and from their being assured, by frequent intercourse with them, that they have no intention to invade their country or liberty, of which they retain a strong jealousy against the Portuguese and other European nations; but chiefly place their safety in the inaccessibility of their mountains, which nature has formed as an impenetrable barrier and defence of the inland country against invaders.

The lower sort of people have huts, somewhat resembling our barns, the sides being formed of reeds tied together, and plastered over with a mixture of clay and cow-dung; and the roofs are thatched with cocoa-leaves. That man who has a house erected with stone and mud, is accounted very great.

With respect to the town, or more properly the village of Johanna, it is composed of about two hundred houses and huts together. Those houses, which are of stone, belong to the chief, who is honoured with the title of king of Johanna, and to the principal men of the country. Their hut buildings are very low, and only of one story high. The house in which the king resides, is built, like the rest, of stone and mud, and does not appear much better than a common alms-house, it being wretchedly furnished, and awkwardly hung with pieces of coarse chintz, with here and there a small looking-glass. The people here suffer strangers to come familiarly into their first apartment, but set apart all the others for the use of their families.

Notwithstanding the above-mentioned inferiority in point of state and grandeur, in comparison of what is seen in more extensive and civilized kingdoms, yet the title of king is justly given to the chief of this island, he having all the essentials of royalty, and unlimited power over his subjects, both in temporals and spirituals, together with seventy-three villages, and near 30,000 inhabitants under his dominion. He resides, for the most part, about nine miles up in the country, seldom coming down to what they call the lower Town, by the sea-side, except when the European ships are lying there, at which times a very numerous retinue accompanies him.

The king generally goes on board the vessels which arrive on the coast, when he expresses a great desire of learning the name of every thing that is new to him; and as he has obtained a tolerable smattering of the English tongue, he is very inquisitive in relation to our wars in Europe, and is particularly pleased with the civility of the English captains, who regale him in the best manner they can, after the European fashion, and salute him, both on his arrival and departure, with a discharge of five guns. This is a ceremony he is exceedingly fond of, as it is a mark of respect that gives him an air of importance, and tends to increase, or at least preserve the esteem of his subjects. His attendants, however, are far from standing so much upon ceremony as their sovereign, and have a forward way of begging any thing they fancy, and if they are refused, seem greatly dissatisfied.

On the arrival of any ship, the captain is obliged to obtain a license from the prince, for dealing with the natives, especially for the more considerable articles of refreshment, such as oxen and goats; and also for wooding, watering, and landing the men. But this permission is purchased

purchased at a reasonable expence, consisting of a few presents, as a little gun-powder, a few muskets, some yards of scarlet cloth, or other trifling articles of the manufacture of Europe.

When a ship casts anchor in the road, it is presently surrounded by a number of canoes, the people hurrying aboard with refreshments of the produce of the islands; and it is diverting enough to observe the confusion and strife among the rowers, all of whom exert their utmost endeavour to get first to their market the ship. When the sea runs high, they are sometimes overset, but this is attended with no danger, on account of their being excellent swimmers, and therefore they only lose their little cargoes of greens and fruit.

Most of their canoes are balanced on each side without leaguers, formed of two poles each, with one across to prevent their oversetting, which has some resemblance to the flying proas we have before described, and which are used in the East Indies. They use paddles instead of oars; and both ends of these vessels are formed for cutting the water, without any distinction of head and stern, and consequently they can sail backwards and forwards without tacking about. Their large boats, called panguays, are raised some feet above the sides with reeds, and branches of trees, well bound together with small cord, and afterwards made water-proof with a kind of bitumen or resinous substance. The mast (for few of them have more than one) carries a sail or two, made either of the leaves of a cocoa-tree, or of sheer-grass matted together; and in these boats they will venture out at sea for the space of three or four weeks, and sometimes a longer time.

It was common for the natives, some years ago, when they came off to the ships with cocoa-nuts, plantains, fowls, &c. to deal entirely by way of barter, for handkerchiefs, rags, glass bottles, bits of iron, and almost every article, without regard to money; but they now begin to know its value, and will part with only the most inconsiderable articles in the former manner; for if we want to purchase cattle, fowls, or cowries, they desire to be paid either in specie, fire-arms, or gun-powder. They have likewise fallen upon a method of soliciting those who come thither, particularly all passengers, to contribute a dollar or two towards improving their navigation, which they carry on with the African continent; and, by way of persuasive examples, produce several lists of persons who have subscribed for that purpose; so that they sometimes collect thirty or forty dollars a ship from those who touch here; and they generally make it a point for the captains to sign, and leave with them, a certificate of good usage, when they quit the place.

Before we conclude this section, we shall, for the entertainment of our readers, give an account of the manner in which the island of Johanna became subject to the present race of kings, which we have been favoured with by Mr. Grose, who was a considerable time in this island, and to whom we are indebted for many curious particulars relating to it.

"The grandfather of the present king, says our author, was an Arab, or Moorish trader to Mosambique, where, in a quarrel with a Portuguese, with whom he was dealing for slaves, he killed him, and being obliged instantly to fly, put to sea in the first boat he could seize on the shore, when the first land he made was Johanna, where, meeting with an hospitable reception, he remained some years in obscurity, till an Arabian vessel being driven in there by stress of weather, he made himself known to his countrymen, and procured them all the relief the place afforded. In the mean while he had perfectly learned the language, was become acquainted with the manners of the inhabitants, and was so pleased with the fertility and pleasantness of the country, that he not only laid aside all thoughts of leaving it, but formed a scheme to raise himself to the sovereignty of it, in which he was greatly countenanced and assisted by the Arabs, his countrymen, who, from the advantages they hoped to derive from the event, came readily into his views.

"In the prosecution of his plan, he did not proceed to any violent methods, but made himself necessary to the natives by instructing them in the use of arms, before unknown to them, particularly the lance, which those of any distinction amongst them now handle with great dexterity. This, with his teaching them other methods of war, which these simple savages were before ignorant of, proved of singular advantage to them, by enabling them to repulse the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands, especially those of Mohilla, with whom they were constantly at variance, sometimes invading, and at others be-

ing invaded by them. This acquired him such respect and authority, that, soon availing himself of it, he caused himself to be elected their chief, or king, and to be invested with despotic power. In obtaining this point, he proceeded by degrees, and made use of all his art; but he had no sooner gained the summit of his ambition, than he gave them reason to repent of their credulity and confidence; for having not only strengthened himself by calling in some of his countrymen, with their families, but choosing for his guards the most bold and enterprising of the natives, he was soon in a condition to establish an arbitrary government. Such as endeavoured to oppose him in his pretensions and innovations, he forced from their families, and sold for slaves to the Arabs; who, on this alteration, resorted more than ever to the island, for the sake of trade, which they still continue. In short, he succeeded so entirely, as to surmount all opposition, and to bequeath the peaceable sovereignty to his son, who was about forty-three years of age at the death of his father, when he obtained the peaceable possession of the kingdom, which he also enjoyed during his life, and leaving two sons at his death, the eldest of whom was king of the island in the year 1756."

SECT. III.

Of the Island of MADAGASCAR, its Name, Situation, and Extent; the Face of the Country; also its Provinces, principal Rivers, and the Natural History of the Island; together with a Description of the Persons, Manners, Customs, Dress, Marriages, Funerals, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THIS island, which is the most extensive of any in Africa, and one of the largest in the universe, is called by the natives Madagasc: but the Portuguese, who first discovered it, gave it the name of St. Laurence; the French call it l'Isle Dauphin, or the Dauphin's island; and the Nubian geographers, Persians, and Arabs, call it Sarrandib. It is situated between the twelfth and twenty-sixth degrees of south latitude, and between the forty-fourth and fifty-first degrees of east longitude from London, about forty leagues to the east of the continent of Africa, it being about a thousand miles in length from north to south, and generally between two and three hundred miles broad. Its southernmost end, which leans towards the Cape of Good Hope, is the broadest; for towards the north it grows much narrower, and terminates in a point.

At a distance from the sea are many high and steep mountains, yet it abounds in spacious plains that have excellent pasture, and has several large forests always green, in which lemons, pomegranates, and a variety of other fruits grow wild.

Madagascar is intersected and its coasts divided by rivers which have their source in the inland parts, and discharge themselves into the sea. The bays and gulphs are innumerable, and in general abound with good roads and harbours, so that the island might be rendered extremely beneficial. The French always claim the honour of having first discovered the maritime countries between the bay of Antongil and the bay of St. Augustine, although the Portuguese, in all their voyages to the East-Indies, have constantly, since the year 1506, anchored in this island, and improved their discoveries; and the Dutch have followed the example of the Portuguese; and it must be allowed, that the French have penetrated farther into the country than either of the two former.

Modern geographers divide this island into twenty-eight provinces, or countries, which form so many distinct people and governments; namely, 1. Anossi, or Carcaussi. 2. Manatengha, or Manampam. 3. The valley of Amboule. 4. Vohitsbang. 5. Itomampo. 6. Icondre. 7. Vatemahanon. 8. Anachimoulli. 9. Eringdrane. 10. Vohits-Anghombe. 11. Manacarongha. 12. Matatan. 13. Antavaree. 14. Ghallemboulou. 15. Tanletari. 16. Sahaveh. 17. Voulovilou. 18. Andovouche. 19. Manghabei. 20. Adeimou. 21. Mandrerei. 22. Ampatre. 23. Caramboule. 24. Mahafalle. 25. Houlouve. 26. Sivah. 27. Ivorodhcoe. 28. Machicore.

There are a great number of rivers in this island, the principal of which are, Franchere, Aconere, Imanhal, Manambatou, Manhasio, Harangazavac, Fantac, Samau, in the province of Anossi.

Manampam, in the province of Manatengha.

Manatengha, Aviboul, Andraghinta, Sandravivangna, Manambondreu, Massianac, Mananghare, in the province of Vohitsbang.

Itomampo, Iongainon, Maropie, Mangharac: these run through

through the provinces of Itomampo, Icondre, Vatemanaon, Caramboule, and Anachimoussi.

Mananghare, waters the provinces of Manacarongha and Matatan.

Avibabe and Sacavil, water the provinces of Antavaree and Anachimoussi.

Mananghorou, Mananfatra, Morimbo, Sumiame, Mananghare, run along the coast from Tametavi to the bay of Antogil.

Mandrerei, waters the provinces of Ampatre, Mangha-bei, and Caramboule.

Longhelahe, waters the provinces of Mahafalle, Hou-louve, Sivah, and Ivorongheoc.

Onghalahe, Ranoumene, Ranoumaninthi, Sahaurrha, Soumaudo, Manatangh, and Mansiatre, run through and water the province of Machicore.

Anossi, or Carcaussi; or, as some writers have called it, Androbeizahæ, extends from the province of Manatangha to the river Mandrerei. Crocodiles swarm in all parts of this province, and indeed they are to be found in all the rivers of the island. A lake is found at the head of the principal river, called Franchere. The name of this lake is Ambone; it is half a league over, and has sufficient depth for any ship, if the mouth was constantly open, which might very easily be effected. The cape which runs out from the river Franchere is by the French called cape St. Romain, but by the natives Ranevate. When the cape is passed, the coast forms a fine bay in the shape of a cross, as the land projects into the middle of it, and forms a peninsula called Tholangare. Fort Dauphin lies to the north of this peninsula, and port Dauphin over against it; and hence the French call this Dauphin's bay. The entrance is rocky and dangerous; but within it there is a secure harbour for either shipping or boats. A small island, called by the French St. Clare, lies near, and forms another convenient harbour. This province includes several other less considerable peninsulas and smaller islands on the coast. The country, upon the whole, is beautiful, abounds in fruit-trees, is fertile in pastures for cattle, and, with proper culture, might be made to produce not only the necessaries, but even the luxuries of life. It is surrounded by mountains, finely diversified with hillocks and plains.

Besides villages and hamlets, this province contains eight towns, namely, Franchere, Imanhal, Cocombes, Andravaule, Ambonetana, Moromamou, Imours, Marofontonts, and Fananghæ.

At some leagues distance from fort Dauphin the Portuguese had formerly a fort, on the summit of a high rock, and several inclosures that furnished them with all sorts of provisions; but the neighbouring natives at length massacred them all.

The mountains in this province are covered with trees and shrubs, and the French have often dug here in expectation of finding gold, but have always been disappointed. They have indeed sometimes found stones in the rivers, and also yellow clay, intermixed with black and white spangles, the latter shining like silver; these they carefully pounded and washed, but the separated matter proved much too light. Some writers, nevertheless, affirm, that the Portuguese, by digging here, formerly found gold, and that the places where they dug had been filled up by the natives, after they had expelled those invaders.

Here are two sorts of inhabitants in this province, namely, whites and negroes. The whites are descended from some Arabs, who settled here upwards of 200 years ago; and the negroes are the original inhabitants of the country.

The whites are divided into three classes or degrees, viz. Rohandrians, Anacandrians, and Andztzafi.

The negroes are divided into four classes or degrees, viz. Voadziri, Lohavohits, Antfoa, and Andeves.

The chiefs and kings are chosen from among the Rohandrian whites, who are the nobles. The Anacandrians are of the blood of the Rohandrians, but it is by a degenerate mode, or, in other words, they are the illegitimate offspring, or the descendants of the illegitimate offspring of the kings, princes, and nobles of the Rohandrian race. Both these classes enjoy the privilege of killing cattle, which in Madagascar is considered as a very great honour.

The lowest class of the whites are the Andztzafi, who are the illegitimate descendants of the Anacandrians. The people of this class are in general fishermen, and are not permitted to kill any living creature except chickens, and the fish they catch.

The people above-mentioned are rather of a copper colour, their hair hanging down in ringlets, but they are generally distinguished by the name of whites.

The negroes of the first or Voadziri class are the most powerful and rich, being masters of several villages: they descended from the original lords of the country, though they are at present, and have been for a considerable time, subordinate to the whites. They are permitted to kill cattle, if no white happens to be in the village; but they must not aspire to that honour, if a white is near at hand.

The second class, called Lohavohits, are chiefs, but are notwithstanding inferior to the Voadziri; as these latter are lords of districts, and Lohavohits only of single villages. These are likewise, when absent from the whites, permitted to kill beasts for their own use.

The third class of people, called the Antfoa, are the legitimate offspring of the Lohavohits.

The Andeves, or people of the fourth class, are considered in a despicable or mean light, the term itself, by which they are denominated, implying "lost men," and as such they may be considered, since they are either slaves made by the fortune of war, or the children of slaves. In times of famine, or scarcity, if the masters of the Andeves cannot or will not support them, the latter have the privilege of changing masters, and giving themselves to be the slaves of others; but freedom is a thing they never can obtain, till death releases them from their tyrants. Others may vary their circumstances by industry, and gain an accession of wealth by fortunate contingencies, but the unhappy Andeves have no alternative, nor any hope beyond the idea of slavery.

Manatengha is well watered by rivers, but nothing particularly remarkable is mentioned concerning this province.

Amboule is a valley, in which there is a variety of springs, which it receives from the mountains of Encalidæ, Hiela, and Manghaze. In the midst of this pleasant valley stands the large town of Amboule, which is populous in itself, and the circumjacent territories abound in cattle, plants and fruits, particularly white yams, and the herb sesame, whose seed, when compressed, produces the oil menachil, and the cattle are here remarkably fat and fine.

This province produces iron; and near the town of Amboule is a hot spring of mineral water which is deemed exceedingly efficacious in the gout. The people of this district are principally employed in manufacturing weapons and domestic utensils with iron and steel. They are licentious and dishonest in their dispositions; so that this district is deemed the retreat of the roguish and lazy, who escape from other provinces, and run hither in order to herd with such whose characters resemble their own. This province contains only about eight hundred persons, the men of which are deemed the best soldiers in the island. It is subject to a rabertau, or great lord, who is very rich, particularly in cattle, and governs in a very arbitrary manner. Subordinate to this rabertau is another, who rules over a little district called Izame.

Vohitbang extends from the river Manatengha to the river Mananghare, and stretches up the country to the river Itomampo. The sea coast of this province is mountainous, and covered with thickets, and the plain parts are fertile, and abound in honey, sugar-canes, yams, rice, and other sorts of grain: iron mines are also found here.

With respect to the inhabitants of this part, they are black, with long thick curled hair, extremely quarrelsome, vindictive, cruel and treacherous: they are also great thieves, and pay so little regard to humanity in their robberies, that they frequently steal the wives, children, and servants of their nearest relations, and sell them for slaves. They have conceived an implacable hatred to the white natives, as they are possessed with a notion, that the latter have the power to bewitch them, and what belongs to them, and to send diseases and death among them and their cattle. Their garments are made of the bark of a tree called fraustranou, and those brought from Mataton are made of another bark called avo. Their arms are a heavy dart, and a wooden shield covered with an ox's hide: these people sometimes travel into the provinces of Anossi and Ampatre.

Itomampo is only about three leagues in length, and narrow in proportion: it is situated in a valley surrounded by high mountains; and the best steel in the island is prepared in this province.

Icondre is also a very small and mountainous province. Its boundaries on the north-east are high hills, which di-

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vide it from Itomampo. On the south are the counties of Vatemahon and Machicore; and the hills and woods adjoining to various provinces are the other boundaries.

Vatemahon adjoins to Icondre; but the whole race of the inhabitants of this province having been extirpated and destroyed by the wars, it is at present uninhabited.

Anachimouffi is said to be four days journey in extent, and is principally bounded by mountains or rivers. This province is extremely populous, finely watered, and exceedingly fertile in cattle, yams, rice, and every other necessary of life. The people of this province formerly became very rich and powerful by the assistance of the French, in the wars carried on by them against the neighbouring provinces. The title of its prince is decan or dian panohahe.

Eringdrane is a fine flat country, of great extent, and divided into two districts, namely, greater and lesser, which separation the river Mangharac occasions.

Vohits Anghombe is divided from that of Eringdrane by the river Mananfatra, which river has its source in the last mentioned province.

These two provinces, we are told, are uncommonly fertile, and so exceedingly populous, that Eringdrane can send into the field thirty thousand, and Vohits Anghombe one hundred thousand fighting men. In both these provinces, the towns and houses surpass in beauty those of any other. Iron, steel, and all the necessaries of life abound here. Cloaths are made of the rind of banana-trees, and these garments are almost as fine as silk, and are preferred to it by the natives, though they can likewise make silk. The people of these fertile provinces, however, are at perpetual variance with one another.

Manacarongha is situated on the sea-coast, the inland parts being bounded either by rivers or mountains. The river Mananghare, which waters this province, is formed by the conflux of these rivers, viz. the Itomampo, Ion-gainon, and Mangharac, besides many small rivulets that run down from the mountains, and which all uniting, lose their respective names, and take that of Mananghare. This river afterwards separates, and disembogues itself into the sea, by seven mouths, none of which are navigable, nor is the river itself, though a very wide one, on account of the rocks in them.

Matatan is situated near a river that bears the same name, which hath its source in the adjacent mountains, and discharges itself into the sea by two mouths, seven leagues distant from each other, and by which a large and delightful island is formed.

Sugar canes, honey, yams, and cattle, abound in this province, which is watered by many rivers, in which are great quantities of fish. Sugar-canes grow in such plenty, that many ships might be loaded yearly, could the natives be brought to make sugar, and were they furnished with proper implements.

Polygamy is allowed to the chiefs of this country, and their wives, which are generally about twenty in number, live in separate apartments in an inclosed place, surrounded by palisades, like a large town; and the punishment of death is inflicted on any person who presumes to enter it.

Antavaree is watered by many streams, some of which have their source in the Red mountains, which are the north-western boundary of the province.

Ghallemboulou surrounds a bay of the same name, which is very extensive, with a good road for boats behind the rocks, but extremely dangerous. The village of Ratf-malone, called St. Matthew by the Europeans, lies upon the coast of this province.

Tometavi, situated on a bay or gulph of the same name, is tolerably fertile, and well watered.

Saheveh is also situated upon a gulph of the same name: this gulph is of a great depth, the bottom is sandy and good, but the excessive high winds render the bay unsafe.

Voulovilou is near cape Long-Point, and, being well watered, is exceeding fertile. In this province are some rocks which project a considerable way into the sea, between which there is a fine harbour.

Andouvouche is a maritime province, containing many gulphs, bays, harbours, &c. particularly the bay of Antonghil, formerly called Manyhabee by the inhabitants of the country. It is situated lengthways to the north, and is about eighteen miles wide. At the end of the bay stands an island extremely high above water; it is about six miles in circuit, covered with the most delightful verdure, and abounding in all kinds of grain, plants, fruits, bananas, honey, fowls, &c. Besides this island, there are some rocks, and three or four other small islands, in the middle of the bay from the entrance to the north-

east side; some of these are covered with wood, and others sown with rice.

The province of Manghabei, which contains many populous villages, borders on the before-mentioned bay. On the north side of the river stands a large town called by the Portuguese St. Angelo. Advancing deep in the bay, on the left hand, stands another, called Spakenburg, built by the Dutch, in 1595, in their first voyage to the East-Indies, containing, in the inclosure, about two hundred houses. The coast here is covered with forests of high trees, for several miles in length, and the interior part of the country is full of bamboos, or a kind of thick cane called bambuvocilau. The soil itself is good and fat, and properly mellowed by the frequent showers of rain. The meadows are rich in pasture, though the inhabitants are never rich in cattle, the greatest stock of the most wealthy not amounting to above twenty head.

The mountains are peculiarly fruitful, and the towns, in this part, are erected with great regularity and solidity, and even exhibit some signs of taste in the choice of situation, as they are either built on pleasant eminences, or by the sides of rivers. They are strongly palisaded round, and have only two gates or entries, one for the usual goings in and out, and the other towards the woods, to facilitate their retreat to those places of refuge and safety, when surprized by their enemies, or when too weak to resist them.

The people in this province are in general fairer than the whites of Matatan; their hair is long, and hanging down; they are free, liberal, and hospitable to strangers, and are not addicted to murder and theft. They are fond of singing and dancing; their dances have rather an immodest tendency, and love is the only subject of their songs.

Adcimou is so small and inconsiderable a province, as to be scarce worth mentioning by geographers or travellers.

Mandrerei is partly watered by the river of the same name, and partly by other streams. This river, which, near its source, divides the provinces of Anossi and Ampatre, runs like a torrent, with great rapidity; it rises in the same mountain with that of Itomampo, and runs a great way to the south-west, receiving several other rivers and streams in its course, till at length it empties itself into the South-sea.

Ampatre lies along the sea-coast, is sixty miles in length and between thirty and forty in breadth, from the sea to Machicore. As there is no river in this province, water is very scarce, and can only be had from a few marshes here and there. It is supposed that Mr. Drury, when upon the following occasion he mentions the great scarcity of water, alludes to this country, which he calls Anterndroc, the name given it by the natives. "This employment, says he, of attending the cattle, was agreeable to me, except in excessive hot weather, when it was a great fatigue to drive them several miles to water, at least every other day; but, in the colder season we had no occasion to observe that practice, for the dew falls so plentifully in the night, that we find it sufficient to drive them into the grass about break of day; and even the inhabitants of this part of the country of Anterndroc, who have no water near them, go into the fields in a morning, with two wooden platters and a tub, and in less than an hour will collect about eight or ten gallons of dew water, which is very good while fresh, but will turn sour, and disagreeable to the taste, in a day or two."

Caramboule is but a small province, being not above twenty miles in length, and ten in breadth. The sea bounds it to the south, and towards the west there is a gulph, which is denominated the bay of Caramboule; and this bay or gulph runs greatly from the west towards the east, and thereby divides this province from that of Ampatre. The country of Caramboule is in general dry and barren, notwithstanding which there are some good pastures, and many herds both of tame and wild cattle. They have cotton and some silk, which the inhabitants make into apparel.

Mahefalle is situated more to the north-west, on the sea side, and extends as far as the salt river, called by the Portuguese Sacalite. This river flows from the country of Houlouve, and turns into a gulph, an accustomed anchoring-place of the Portuguese, but the French never frequent it.

Houlouve extends about two days journey up the country. This province begins at the mouth of the salt river above-mentioned.

Sivah extends about twelve miles along the coast of the island.

Ivoronheoc,

Ivoronheoc, or the country of the bay of St. Augustine, is situated near the river Longhelahe, which receives the waters of three small rivers, namely, Orandumainthi, Onghelamaffey, and Sacamare, besides many rivulets.

Machicore is of great extent, and of equal length with the river Longhelahe. It is upwards of two hundred miles from east-north-east to west-south-west, the same from east to west, and about one hundred and fifty from north to south, that is, from the river Longhelahe to the provinces of Mahesalle and Ampatre.

Some years ago this country was laid waste, and ruined by war, the inhabitants living concealed in woods, for fear of their enemies, and subsisting upon roots only, or the flesh of wild cattle. Previous to that time, several of the before-mentioned provinces were under the sovereignty of one lord, called Decan or Dian Baluralen, or lord of an hundred thousand parks; in the life-time of this prince, these countries enjoyed a profound peace, and flourished in excess of riches and pleasure, but, upon his death, a war broke out between his sons, which was carried on with so much fury and animosity, that it ended in the ruin of themselves and the country.

In the gulfs belonging to, or near the coasts of Madagascar, are several islands. The first we shall take notice of is the island of St. Mary; or, as the natives and Madagascanians call it, Nossi Ibrahim, or the isle of Abraham, which lies in seventeen degrees south latitude, about two leagues from the shore of Madagascar, and opposite the mouth of the river Mananghare. It is about fifty miles in length, from north to south, and almost ten from east to west. It is surrounded by rocks, over which canoes may pass when the sea is high; but at low tide they are scarcely covered with a foot of water, which renders the coast in general dangerous, and only accessible for shipping at particular places. Various beautiful shells, and great quantities of white coral, abound about this island. The whole is intersected and watered by many rivers, rivulets, and running springs, which give fertility to the soil, and beauty to the scene; enriched on every side by plantations of rice, yams, millet, fruit, vegetables, &c. The air is extremely moist: for there is hardly a day in the year but it rains some time within the twenty-four hours, and it often rains a week together, without intermission. The cattle are fat and good: ambergris is found about the eastern shore; and the island abounds with various gums, particularly that excellent one called tacamahaca.

Since the French were settled on the island of St. Mary, it became much more populous than before: nor dare the neighbouring Madagascanians now set a foot on the island, though they formerly used to carry fire and sword amongst the poor natives, and were a great scourge to them. At present there are ten or twelve villages, and near a thousand inhabitants, who employ themselves chiefly in cultivating rice, yams, peas, beans, &c. They are likewise very fond of a fish called hourils, which they catch either by nets or hooks, and eat or sell them, as their necessities require. Their religion is paganism, intermixed with some particles of judaism; and though none of them have been known to become profelytes, yet they keep on good terms with Christians.

Southward of the island of St. Mary is a small island, separated by a narrow channel, not above three fathoms over, so rich, fertile and abundant, that the inhabitants of St. Mary send their cattle hither to fatten, and lay out large plantations of rice, corn, roots and fruits, notwithstanding which they have not thought proper to plant any colony in it. This is probably the same island which Flacourt places in the bottom of the bay of Antogil, which he highly praises for its beauty and fertility, as well as for the safety of its harbour, which, during the early voyages of the Dutch to the East Indies, was much frequented by them.

In nineteen degrees fifteen minutes south latitude, and about twenty-two leagues to the eastward of Madagascar, is situated the uninhabited island of Diego Rodriguer.

The islands called by the Portuguese Illas Primieras, and four other islands called Angoras, are situated in the sixteenth degree south latitude, but these islands contain nothing in them deserving a particular description.

Several small islands, called Utiques, are placed by Le Croix opposite to cape St. Sebastian, on the coast of Saffola, and under the latitude of twenty-four degrees nine minutes from the continent; yet these we have reason to believe to be the little cluster of islands which stand off St. Sebastian, on the north-west end of Madagascar, east of the Comora islands; they produce rice, millet, and great abundance of cattle; there is also ambergris

found on the sea-coast, which the people collect and export to different parts of the continent; but the most valuable commodity of these islands is a pearl fishery, which might turn to good account, if the natives understood their virtue, and did not spoil their colour and transparency, by boiling the oysters in which they find the pearls.

This island is inhabited by negroes, who resemble those of Madagascar both in person and dress, if the bit of rag or lammer tied round their middle, merits that denomination. Their religion is paganism, with some faint gleams of judaism; and they are exceedingly superstitious, being extremely fond of attending to predictions, though their lives are usually rendered unhappy thereby, as, indeed, how can it be otherwise, anxiously agitated as they are between the hope of possessing some certain good, or on the contrary, that some dreadful evil will assuredly befall them?

There are a number of small islands on the coast of Madagascar, from the fifth to the fortieth degree of latitude; but a description of them cannot be expected, as they are all uninhabited.

Under the latitude of eight, and ninety degrees east longitude, lies the island of Diego Garcia. Near two degrees south of this stand three small islands, called Bromdons; and directly south of them, about three degrees, stands the island of Rodrique, or Roderigo, between the continent and Madagascar, not very far distant from the Comora islands.

Under the twenty-ninth degree of south latitude, stands the island of Ramarcires, about three degrees east south-east of Mauritius; a little beyond which is the island of John of Lisbon, in twenty-six degrees south latitude, and in the same longitude with the isle of Bourbon.

There lies an island, in latitude thirty-two, and longitude seventy-six, which was discovered by the Dutch, who never gave any name to it. To the south of this, between latitude thirty-seven and thirty-eight, are two other islands, one of which is called Amsterdam, and the other St. Paul, but neither of them contain any thing that merits particular attention.

To the north of the cape of Good Hope, are three small islands, called by the Dutch, Roben Eiland, Dassen Eiland, and Frans Eiland. The first of these is also called Rabbet island, from the prodigious numbers of those animals that burrow on the shore: it is very small, being not more than two leagues in circuit. The second is called Deer island, by its being inhabited by great numbers of deer. It is imagined that these creatures were brought hither by Spitzbergen, in the year 1601. The English and Dutch afterwards brought hither some sheep, which have also greatly increased, though not in proportion to the deer, which are so numerous as to cover the principal part of the island. The sheep here grow to an amazing size, and their tails are from thirty to forty pounds weight. It is surprising how these animals procure a subsistence, or what could induce the people to bring them here, as the island, which is sandy, produces nothing but a few flowers and briars; it must, therefore, have had a very unpromising appearance for the breeding or fattening of cattle, though the event, by the peculiar care of Providence, has answered the expectations of those who were induced to try the experiment. What still increases our astonishment is, that it wants fresh water; which circumstance alone, it might have been imagined, would have ruined the whole project. But to proceed to the natural history of this island.

Gold, silver, copper, tin, and iron, are found in Madagascar, of which the natives make razors, lances, hatchets, and other instruments. Here are also several sorts of precious stones, as topazes, amethysts, agates, and several sorts of jaspers; frankincense and benzoin are found in abundance; and ambergris is gathered on the sea coast.

Besides the lemon and pomegranate trees already mentioned, they have, among the fruit, palmettos, plantains, bananas, tamarinds, a currant which grows on a tree and not on a bush as in Europe, and is very pleasant to the taste. Here are also sugar canes, vats, barley, and rice. They have a large tree which bears a kind of a plumb, which, when ripe, is black, and of the size of a cherry, and on the inside are little stones like those of grapes; this tree has thorns two inches long. They have also a very tall tree, the leaf of which resembles that of the pear-tree; it has a fruit speckled like the sparrow's egg, and of the same size; it is full of seeds, and of a sweet juice, esteemed a certain cure for fluxes. They have a kind of nut which smells of all sorts of spices; it is as large as a nutmeg, but browner,

browner, and more round. Pepper grows here in small quantities, no care being taken to cultivate it; this pepper grows in clusters upon shrubs that trail upon the ground.

In this island is a tree, whose leaves and tender sprigs sting like nettles, but the root is of great use where there is a scarcity of water, which is the case in many parts of the country; for it retains a great deal of juice, which is extracted by beating the root in a wooden mortar, and pressing out the liquor; and of the bark of this tree they make ropes. Here is likewise wood proper for building, as also cedar and ebony, but none fit for masts.

Several sorts of grafs of different colours grow in the plains, to a much greater height than any in England: the natives never cut any for hay; for before the old is withered, new grafs springs up under it; but they commonly burn the old grafs.

Tobacco grows there, which is smoaked in reeds or shells. The natives are also fond of smoaking a plant, to which they give the name of jermangher; this plant grows about five feet high, bearing a long and slender leaf, and a pod which contains about a dozen seeds like hemp-seed. The natives mix the leaves and seeds together, and lay them three or four days in the sun, till they are very dry and fit to be smoaked; but it strongly intoxicates the people; their eyes, after smoaking it, look red and fiery, their aspect fierce and wild; and they are even more active, bold, and vigorous, while the effect continues; but those who use it much, are weak and dispirited whenever they are not intoxicated.

The soil is indeed so fertile, that it produces two crops in a year of every thing, except sugar-canes, which must be left two years standing, that they may grow to a proper size and maturity.

Their oxen are prodigiously large, and yet so nimble and unruly, that they will leap very high fences: they are beautifully coloured, some of them being streaked like a tyger; others are black, with white spots, and some are white with black spots. They have a protuberance between their shoulders, which has some resemblance to that of a camel, and consists of fat and flesh; some of these excrescences are said to weigh between three and four score pounds. The cows do not give so much milk as ours in England, nor will they ever suffer themselves to be milked till the calf has first suckled; so that they keep a calf for every cow till she is again with calf, for they seldom miss a season.

Here are some sheep with heavy tails, and also goats; but they keep no tame hogs, these being sufficiently numerous in the country, and so very mischievous to the plantations of potatoes, and other roots, that they are forced to set traps to catch them. They have also wild dogs, and foxes, which are very fierce, and sometimes will attack a man; but there are no lions, tygers, or any other ferocious animals in the island, except wild boars, which have two horns near the nose, like prickles, and their skin is almost impenetrable.

Here are excellent fowls, with plenty of turtle-doves, partridges, pigeons, ducks, teal and other wild fowl in the woods.

In Madagascar, bees are very numerous, and great quantities of honey are found in the woods. The natives also keep bee-hives; for they not only eat the honey, but make a palatable liquor of it, called toack, which has a considerable spirit, and of which they frequently drink till they are intoxicated. This is the common liquor drank at entertainments.

In this island are two or three kinds of silk, which are found in plenty in almost every part of it, some of a brownish colour, and one sort white, the outside of which is full of small pointed prickles. The cone is about three inches long, shaped like a ninepin, and at the top is found a small hole, out of which a blackish worm is sometimes seen to creep; but we have no account of its changing its form in the manner of the common silk-worms, though it probably becomes a flying insect. There are, however, no mulberry trees in the island, and these worms and silk are found on three or four different sorts of trees, adhering to the thick branches or trunk. The people pull out the cone on their knees, tearing it to pieces with their hands, and then spin it with a spindle made of bone, and a rock-staff; after which they weave it, and wear it round their waist, as a garment.

There is a tree called roseer in some parts of the country, which is of great use to the lower, or middling sort of people, from its furnishing materials for a cloth to wear round their waist. The leaf resembles that of a cocoa-tree, but is longer by two feet, and bears a plumb almost

like a damascene. They take away the outer bark, and peel entirely off the inner, which is white, and beat it with a stick which is soft and pliable. It then resembles a long, white, thin shaving. After this they soak it in water, then split it into threads, which they tie together, and weave it into cloth.

In this island are several kinds of river and other birds, known in the language of the country by the general name of Vourou; but they are much less than those of Europe; the eggs of the hens not being larger than those of pigeons. Here are many pheasants, which are of the same kind as those in England; but there is a particular sort, that have violet feathers, and a red beak. Here are likewise small paroquets, and some of a dark red; but these last are very scarce. Small green finches, that whistle and imitate the songs of other birds; wild turkies; black, white, and grey eagles, with fine plumage; wild storks, with crests on their heads; common teal, and a particular sort, with red legs and claws, called halives; pelicans; black and white herons; water wag-tails, &c. Samba is a bird whose feathers are as red as fire. Vourouchontfi are white birds, that follow the cattle, and feed upon the flies and beetles found on them; they are generally very lean, and ill-tasted. Voula is a river bird, with a long and white beak; it is about the size of a pelican, and its flesh is tolerably good eating. Taliva is also a river bird, about the size of a hen, with violet plumage, with red and black feet. Heretac is a bird with a red crest on his head, and has black feathers, and feet like a teal. Takia is a bird, whose wings, feet, and beak, are black; it is about the size of a blackbird, and has but one simple note, from which it receives its name; for it is continually calling takia; as our cuckow in England, from its note being expressive of that sound, is so called.

They catch great numbers of lobsters and craw-fish, excellent turtles, eels, the sword-fish, the sea hedge-hog, and many kinds of fish common to other countries in the same climate. There are many aligators in the river.

In this island are a great variety of insects and reptiles. The famocantraton, or breast-leaper, is an extraordinary but dangerous insect. It is about the size of a small lizard, and fixes itself, as if glued, to the barks of trees, with its mouth always open, ready to catch spiders, flies, and other insects. They are called breast-leapers, from their leaping on the breasts of those who approach the tree where they are; and they stick so fast, that it is impossible to get them off, without cutting away that part of the flesh on which they are fixed. Mardent is a kind of serpent that feeds on bats and small birds; it is about the length and thickness of a man's arm, and not venomous, though deemed so by most of the natives. Among other serpents, here are also the menore, save, mare, triondibale, renutric, and ahacondet. This last is very dangerous, though in substance not thicker than a quill. It slips into the body at particular times, gnaws the intestines, and occasions the most excruciating pain: it infallibly produces death, if not extracted in a short time, which is seldom the case.

The water-scorpion, called tringalaka huravou, resides constantly in marshes and still waters, destroys cattle, attacks dogs, and sucks their blood, after it has killed them.

The scorpion spider, or vancho, has a large, round, and black belly, and is extremely dangerous. Its bite occasions an instantaneous swooning, which sometimes lasts two days, attended with a remarkable coldness and shivering. The method of cure is, by placing the person near the fire, and administering such things as poison is usually expelled with.

Here is a creeping animal, called anocalife, that breeds between the barks of rotten and worm-eaten trees. It is about six inches long, of a flat form, and has many legs like a caterpillar, with a hard skin. Its bite is exceeding venomous, and causes the like disorder as that produced from the vanocho; and the consequence will be the loss of life, if the same remedies are not applied.

Moth-worms, ear-wigs, bugs, and other troublesome insects, are very numerous here. The acolalan is a small insect, like a bug, but not so offensive in smell; when full grown, it is about the size of a man's little finger, at which time it becomes winged, and flies away. The young ones remain in the houses, and are very destructive to the furniture, as also to most kinds of apparel, and to cloth. The vombau is a butterfly variegated with different colours, among which are those of gold and silver. Others are known by the name of sacondre: these proceed from beetles, and keep to the bark of a particular shrub, on which

which they deposit honey, equal to that the bees produce.

Many sorts of snails are here, some of which have their particular appellations, but they are in general called catacora. Caterpillars also abound here in great variety, but the whole of them are distinguished by the name of singoulon voulon. Herechereche is a beetle that shines in the woods and houses with a surprising lustre in the night.

In this island are worms of various kinds; but the most distinguished are the silk worms, which are four-footed. Some of them, called landeve, produce one prickly cod; others, called landeferaha, make small cods inclosed in a large one, frequently containing five hundred young. The third kind, called landeanacau, spin their silk on the tree anacau that grows by the sea side, the cods hang in strings, separated from each other, and the silk is the finest, strongest, and best of all. The fourth sort, called landevontaguea, make their silk on the tree vontonfir, which is not so substantial as the former, but very fine.

Two sorts of land-tortoises are to be found here; one of which is called hilinstoca, and the other fanou. Ants are very numerous, and exceedingly harmless, except one sort called sicouroucours, which are particularly destructive to the rice, of which they devour great quantities.

In this island are mines of iron and steel, which the natives have the art of purifying and forging with much less difficulty and labour than the Europeans. In the inland mountainous parts, silver is found; and a white metal, which much resembles tin. The gold here is of two sorts, namely, a pale soft sort, which is of little value; and a finer sort, which is tolerably good.

In the valley of Amboula, is a fountain of hot water, esteemed a sovereign remedy against all disorders proceeding from cold in the nervous parts; and the same water, taken inwardly, removes obstructions in the loins, cures asthmas, and all disorders of the lungs.

We shall now treat of the persons, manners, customs, dress, &c. of the inhabitants of Madagascar; previous to which, it may be proper to observe, that this island, though reckoned to be eight hundred leagues in compass from north to south, is not populous in proportion to its extent, for it is supposed not to contain above one million six hundred thousand souls.

All the inhabitants are black, except those of a little province beyond the Maratanes; and most of the great men, who are descended from the Arabs, and still preserve something of their complexion, though they become black insensibly, by their intermarriages with the original inhabitants. The Arabs, who seized upon this island, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, established commanders in all the provinces, and fixed the chief seat of their government beyond the Maratanes, which is the reason why their descendants, who are stiled lavaleffes, are still fair, or at least called so, for they are for the most part of a tawny complexion.

The natives are in general tall, well made, nimble, and have a proud gait. Their hair is not woolly, like that of the Guiney negroes, but it is always black, and for the most part curls naturally; their lips are not thick, neither are their noses flat, though they are small. They sometimes affect a smiling countenance; and they know how to conceal a grand design, or the strongest passion, with as much artifice as the most crafty knave among the nations that are most famous for their political dissimulation.

Wild people are found in some parts of this island, who let their hair and beards grow, go almost naked, inhabit thick and unfrequented woods, live upon wild cattle, fruits, roots, honey, locusts, &c. and do not associate with their fellow natives.

Though, according to the accounts given by the French of the inhabitants, some of the people are said to be very deceitful, flattering, and false; yet this must be understood chiefly of those of the coast of Manghabei, to the end of the island, southward. But the people in general are allowed to be of a humane and friendly disposition; share with their neighbours what they take in hunting; and the great even take a pride in relieving the distressed, though they were before at enmity. In short, they have many virtues; but, as in other countries, there are considerable numbers, who violate the laws of justice and humanity, in order to gratify their passions. They are, however, not deficient in point of understanding, but are capable of reasoning upon any subject where they have not been blinded by superstition; and many of them are endued with admirable good sense. The women are remarkable for their obedience to their husbands, their good temper, and agreeable conversation.

With respect to the dress of the Madagascarians, the men wear only a piece of cotton cloth or silk round their waist, called a lamber; some of these they make themselves; but those who are rich buy the silks and calicoes at sea port towns, giving a great price for them, as a cow and a calf for no more than will make one lamber. The men and women of distinction also adorn themselves with rings on their wrists; some are of gold, some of silver, but most of them of copper. They curl their hair, and make it lie close and smooth; and those of superior rank adorn their hair with rings and other decorations.

The habit of the women consists of a lamber, which reaches to their feet, and above it a garment like a straight shift, which covers all the body, and has short sleeves. This is commonly made of cotton, and dyed of a dark colour. Those of a higher rank, adorn it with beads, especially in the back, where they are ranged in rows, and cross each other; these being of different colours, form a large double cross very much resembling the union flag. Some of the women use saravohits, or drawers, with an aezan, or long robe without sleeves, and a piece of linen before, sewed at both ends like an apron.

Their ornaments, called firauach, are different kinds of chains worn round the necks, arms, and legs; ear-rings, bracelets, rings, and other toys, with necklaces of different names, such as salantes, saraves, and endachs, consisting of three or four, and even twelve rows of pearls, corals, beads of gold, glass of all colours, rock crystal, agates, cornelian, and sardonian stones. These ornaments of gold are only worn by the Zafaramini, who are the chiefs of the island; and among the negroes, by the Voadziri and Lahavohits.

The common diet of these islanders is cows milk, rice, and roots. They roast sometimes large pieces of beef with the hide on. They drink water and honey-wine; but they have neither bread nor grape-wine. The honey-wine is a composition of three parts of water to one of honey, which they boil together, and skim, after it is reduced to three-fourths. They afterwards set it to work in large pots of black earth, made in this island. This wine has a very pleasant tartish taste, but is too luscious. They have a sort of wine, still more unwholesome, which is made of sugar canes.

Licking the feet of a superior, is deemed the most respectful salutation. This kind of abject submission is practised by all inferior persons when they address their prince, and by the women when they come to welcome their husbands on their return from the wars; those of superior rank lick only the knees of their sovereign; but slaves pay to their masters the above preposterous mark of respect.

Here is no other marriage ceremony among the negroes, than agreeing to cohabit together; but the whites have a peculiar ceremony in being joined, or married to the head wife; their other wives are taken with as little form as those of the negroes are.

They practise polygamy throughout the island; and the people in general are exceeding incontinent, which may be ascribed to the extremes which actuate both sexes; the men having too much freedom, and the women being under too much restraint; yet these opposite causes produce similar effects; for here since the men take all the licentious liberties which such an unbounded licence permits; so the women, being impatient of restraint, allow themselves such freedom in private, in order to compensate for what they suffer by the severity of the public laws and tyranny of their husbands, that the inestimable jewel chastity is rarely to be met with among them.

Their funerals are conducted in the following manner: the relations wash and cleanse the body of the deceased, and then deck it with the most costly ornaments which the person wore when living. It is then wrapped up in a mat, in order to be carried in that manner to the grave. The head of a woman's corpse is generally embellished with a kind of cap: but the heads and beards of men of rank, after their decease, are clean shaved. Previous to the time of burial, the corpse lies in state for some days, during which space a light is continually burnt at its feet; and all the relations, friends, and slaves, frequently surround the corpse, and utter the most dismal lamentations. Having tired themselves with bewailing, the women fall a dancing, and the men have recourse to warlike exercises. At length they all surround the body again, call the dead by his name, very gravely expostulate with him for dying, and pathetically demand whether he had not every thing that could satisfy him in this life, such as beautiful and faithful wives, dutiful children, loving friends, industri-

ous slaves, a sufficiency of gold, silver, iron, cattle, &c. We are sorry there is reason to remark, that this burlesque method of howling over and interrogating the dead is not peculiar to this idolatrous people, as not only many other nations in Africa have the same custom; but that even in Europe some persons, who pretend to be more enlightened, still retain these absurd ceremonies.

When the day of interment is come, the corpse is carried to the burying-place, which is named Amounouque, in a coffin made of hollow trunks of trees, which are curiously closed together; and there it is deposited six feet deep, under a strong hut, in which are left plates, dishes, apparel, rice, tobacco, &c. that the dead may want no necessary accommodation. The deceased being thus properly provided for; the hut is intirely closed up, by placing a large stone before the only entrance. Then, on the outside, beasts are sacrificed; and the company having regaled themselves, some fragments of meat are left, which they suppose will be equally distributed between the departed person and the dæmons.

Fifteen days after, imagining the provisions are exhausted, the relations and friends send more, lest the dead body, or the dæmons who guard it, should be famished; and these presents are always accompanied with the kindest messages and most respectful compliments to the deceased. The heads of all the beasts which are sacrificed, are fixed upon long poles, and placed round the sepulchral hut in the manner of trophies. Sacrifices of beasts are likewise made by, or in favour of, the children descended from the deceased, or those nearly related to him, when the juvenile band, in a kind of hymn, invoke the spirit of the departed person to be propitious to them.

When a person of rank dies at a distance from home, his body is burned upon the spot; but his head having been previously cut off, is carried home and interred in a proper sepulchre, with the usual funeral rights. But persons slain in war, who have been hastily buried in or near the field of battle, are, in times of peace, again dug up, and reburied in the usual form, provided the body be not nearly in a state of putrefaction, from the long space since its interment.

These people hold the memory of their ancestors in the utmost esteem and veneration; their greatest and most solemn oath being, to swear by the souls of their predecessors, or the virtues of their parents or nearest relations.

In consequence of the execrable superstitions of these people, they have a most barbarous custom of exposing their children to a certain and cruel, though indeterminate kind of death, by strangling them in the birth, or sacrificing them to dæmons, which horrid and atrocious practice may in all probability be the true political reason why this large island is so thin of inhabitants, in proportion to its great extent and amazing fertility. These shocking cruelties are owing to the ombiaffes, who exercise a most uncontrouled power over the minds of the people; the latter being under an obligation of exposing their new born children in desert places to famish, or be devoured by wild beasts; to strangle them in their birth, or to sacrifice them to their dæmons, according to the prediction or the command of the ombiaffes, who pretending to contemplate the aspect of the planets at the time of their birth, pronounce arbitrarily whether they are fortunate or inauspicious, and decree the child to life or death accordingly. These detestable murders are the more frequent, inasmuch as, besides the ombiaffes having the fate of new born infants at their disposal at all times, those who are born on what the people deem unlucky days, are sure to be put to death, and, unhappily, above half the days in the year are accounted so.

The inauspicious or unfortunate portions of the year are; the entire months of April or Safard, March or Ramahara; the last week of every month in the year; every eighth day, whether it falls in auspicious months or weeks, or otherwise, every eighth day being called Assarontor, and every last week in each month Alacossi. Every Wednesday and Friday throughout the year are deemed unlucky; and even particular hours are supposed to be influenced by the vitangs, or unlucky planets. However, the force of nature sometimes overcomes the prevalence of superstition; and the prejudice of custom yields to the dictates of parental affection; to which we may add, that the ombiaffes are not insensible to the power of bribery; and what will not a parent, who has tender feelings, give to save his inoffensive offspring from immediate destruction? Thus wealth, the grand fountain of vice, and stimulator of crimes, may, properly applied, be rendered the means of benevolence, and friend of humanity.

Throughout the island of Madagascar, the same language is spoken, but differently pronounced in different provinces. It bears a great affinity to the Arabic, is extremely copious, and, in the manner of speaking, and in the order and conjunction of the nouns and verbs, is agreeable to the Greek. The characters in use among the ombiaffes are the Arabic, twenty-four in number, written from the right to the left, though the pronunciation of some differs from the Arabic. These characters were introduced about three centuries ago by the Arabs sent by the calif of Mecca, who landed at Matatan, intermarried with the women of the country, and taught the Arabic language, with the koran, to those who embraced Mahometanism, which some of them still adhere to.

In order to give the reader some idea of the soft and liquid tones, with which the Madagascar language abounds, we have here selected a few of their common words, with their translation in English; viz. valu, alive; melanjore; to agree; maliske, anger; leshulu, any-body; mononego, ascend; bettu, brains; haner, beef; omebayvovva, cow; tanna, the earth; omebay, cattle; morte, dead; varlarvo, a mouse; oroong, the nose; overnarmo, potatoes; plato, a pistol; hulu, people; color, years. Teenongher, east; andreffer, west; avarruchs, north; atemo, south. Their numbers are, efer, one; roaa, two; talu, three; effutchs, four; deene, five; camming, six; fecto, seven; varlo, eight; fever, nine; folo, ten. The days of the week are, Alhaida, Sunday; Alletenne, Monday; Talorter, Tuesday; Allerrerbeer, Wednesday; Commeshee, Thursday; Immor, Friday; Sarbueche, Saturday.

They reckon from one to ten, like the Arabians and Europeans, and, after ten, add the number one, as far as twenty. All the people of Madagascar, except the negroes of Machicore, and the inhabitants of the mountains, are tolerably expert at casting up small sums.

They use no weights or measures higher than a drachm, for as they weigh no articles whatever, gold and silver excepted, drachm weights are deemed sufficient; all other commodities being sold by way of barter or exchange.

The names of their small weights are, nanqui, half a grain; sacare, a grain; nangue, six grains; vari, half a drachm; sompi, a drachm.

The measures are, 1. The voule, which contains half a pound of rice, &c. 2. The monca, containing six pounds; and, 3. The zatou, containing one hundred voulos, or fifty pounds of rice, &c. These are measures of capacity.

The measure of length is only a refe, or a measure of about two yards in length, which is used in measuring cordage, stuffs, &c. the land not being estimated by admeasurement, but by the quantity of grain with which it may be sown.

They make paper, in this island, with fewer instruments and engines than they use in Europe. The bark of the tree avo is boiled two days in good lye, made of the ashes of the same tree, till it becomes soft, and supple; when it is washed in clear water, beat to a proper consistency, and poured afterwards on mats of exquisite fine reeds, twisted and regularly joined together, in order to be drained and become paper. After this, it is placed on a loaf of balisior, oiled with menachil, to dry in the sun; each dried leaf is afterwards dipped in a decoction of rice, to prevent it from remaining spongy: then being dried once more, it becomes smooth, even, and fit for use.

Their ink is extracted, by way of decoction, from the wood called arandranto, which is likewise made use of by the principal people for building. The extract, being mixed with verdigris, becomes exceeding black. Their pens are made of bamboo, and are cut to the same size, fashioned after a similar manner, and rendered almost as transparent as the quills used in Europe.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Trade carried on in MADAGASCAR; Method of going to War between the different Provinces, &c. and the political and civil Government of the Island.

THE natives of Madagascar have very confined ideas and imperfect notions of foreign traffic; so that the trade of this island is chiefly of a domestic nature. There being no currency established among them, they deal together by way of barter, and if they obtain any gold or silver coins from the Europeans, who sometimes touch here, they immediately melt them down, and convert them into ear-rings, bracelets, &c.

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The domestic trade is of this nature: the people of the cotton provinces take care to cultivate that article, and then carry it to the provinces which abound in cattle, rice, &c. Having trucked or bartered commodities, the wants of each are supplied; for they who have plenty of provisions, are by these means supplied with cloathing; and they who can easily procure apparel in their own country are furnished with provisions, in which their own provinces might be deficient. Thus the interchange of the produce of the different provinces becomes of reciprocal benefit to the whole.

The foreign traffic which some of the Madagascarians carry on with the European ships, consists in exchanging fresh provisions for yellow wares; sapphires for hard and small wares of all sorts; rubies for looking glasses; emeralds for beads; cornelians, and other precious stones found in the country, &c. for fire-arms, and coral of any size or colour, pierced through for stringing, &c. Thus the riches of these people consist in the wares and commodities which they procure; in the bills, hatchets, knives, lances, iron and steel spades, lammers, &c. which they make, in the slaves they take in war, or steal in times of peace, in the cattle they breed, and in the lands which they cultivate. The French, who trade with these people from the isle of Bourbon for slaves and cattle, complain that of late years piastres are demanded for those and other articles.

The celebrated French governor Hacourt esteemed this island of great importance for advancing and establishing commerce towards Ethiopia, the Red sea, gulf of Arabia, and other Indian countries; and that great advantage might be made from the conveniency of wood for building ships, for carrying on the trade, and from the exchange of commodities.

The sovereigns or princes of the different territories in this island are most of them related to each other, as are likewise their great lords and inferior subjects, by continual intermarriages; nevertheless they are perpetually quarrelling with and waging war against each other; private family disputes often occasion open ruptures, and the resentment of an individual will induce some thousands to commit hostilities on the offending party. These domestic wars are pursued with more rancour and hatred than a war with a foreign enemy would be; for when relations and friends differ, it is observable, they entertain a greater implacability against each other, than strangers when they happen to be at enmity.

Their engagements in the field are seldom regular; they chiefly depend on surprise and ambuscade, and sacrifice courage to stratagem. When the prospect of advantage offers, they usually assemble privately, act with the utmost caution and secrecy, gain the enemies frontiers by forced marches in the night, and attack them suddenly and unexpectedly: if success attends their arms, they commit the most cruel ravages: if they meet with an unlooked for repulse, they retire with the utmost precipitation. But good or bad success are alike fatal to the country; if they are fortunate, they destroy all before them as they advance; if unfortunate, they lay waste the country in their retreat. Thus, by means of intestine broils, famine frequently reigns in a country calculated by nature to afford the utmost plenty.

The prince of a territory sometimes gives notice to the lords, who are his subjects, to assemble their forces separately, and to march by different routs to the place of rendezvous, in order to come suddenly upon and attack the towns of their enemies, which they surround, and advance with the most dreadful shouts; and, if successful, they massacre all they meet with in them, sparing neither age nor sex. After this sanguinary heat is over, if they meet with any other of the adverse party, or overtake any fugitives, they make slaves of them; but usually put to death those who are allied to the chief, fearing they might at some future time become formidable, should they be suffered to survive.

With respect to their political management of the war, they depute spies to observe the condition, number, and situation of the enemy, if on a march, or encamped; or to reconnoitre their towns, and take notice of the importance of their fortifications, if they should mean to maintain them, and stand a siege. If threatened to be attacked by others, they shift their place of residence, drive their women and cattle into the most private recesses, or places difficult of access, and consequently may be easily defended. Sometimes parties of only forty or fifty are sent to plunder and destroy the lesser villages and hamlets; and these light detachments are called *fanvoue*. If opportunity serves,

the towns are reduced to ashes; but if they are under any apprehension that the flames will exasperate the neighbouring inhabitants, who might immediately pursue them, or cut off their retreat, they satisfy themselves with only plundering the towns without burning them.

These kind of expeditions are named *tassichamanthi*, or secret war; and the marauders, who engage in them, are always provided with what they deem charms, which are small billets written in Arabic characters; these they imagine will procure them success, and bring the greatest misfortunes on their enemies, by taking away their strength, and depriving them of their courage to defend themselves; they likewise imagine that they afflict their foes with innumerable disorders, and occasion the most fatal distempers to attack them.

Their warlike weapons vary according to the different parts of the island they live in. Some make use of a dart, which is named *reneles*, with an iron point long and thick, and carry besides fifteen lesser darts, that are named *sitoraches*. Others use an ample shield, and a large dart called *caubahi*, but the generality use lances as well as darts, and the great men carry fire-arms; for to carry a lance, denotes a person to be of common or vulgar rank; but to bear a gun upon the shoulder betokens gentility, and shews that the bearer ranks as a nobleman, or person of superior degree.

The islanders have little notion of discipline in their wars; they generally charge in separate bodies of one hundred each; their charges are irregularly made, as each individual tries to do his best, but at the same time keeps continually shouting, capering, and jumping about, in order at once to intimidate the enemy, and prevent any aim being taken at himself; so that an attack thus made, appears to be rather the assault of a promiscuous mob, than the well conducted onset of disciplined troops. When an enemy falls, he is immediately pierced through with darts by as many as can come near him, and his throat is afterwards cut from ear to ear. And we are told, that during the time of war, the women keep up continual dancing (alternately) by day and night, never eat or sleep in their own houses, and, however addicted to incontinency, never suffer the company of another man, whilst their husbands are exposed to danger, persuaded that the men would be killed or wounded by infidelity in their absence, and believe them to be animated by their continual dancing, and their strength and courage increased; wherefore in compliance with the most superstitious customs and ceremonies, they keep up their dancing during the war.

If it happens that one of the princes finds himself too weak to oppose the other by force of arms, he has recourse to negotiation, and sends ambassadors, laden with presents, to sue for peace, appoint a time and place for conference, and settle all the preliminaries for an accommodation. If the presents are received, and the proposals approved, other presents are sent in return, and every thing is settled for the intended meeting, the place appointed being always on the banks of a river. When the day arrives both princes or chiefs repair to the river at the head of their respective armies. Each then kills a bull in the sight of the armies, and then they present to each other a piece of the liver on the end of a spear, which both are obliged to eat a piece of; and after this they mutually wish, with the most solemn asseveration, "That the liver may burst them; that God may withdraw his hand from amongst them; that they may be destroyed by their enemies; and that their race may end in themselves; if they any longer think of carrying on the war; if they have any design of sending witchcrafts or poisons into the enemies country; if they carry off the cattle, or destroy the subjects of each other," &c.

These people have some notion of astronomy, and divide the year like us, into twelve months: the first day of their year begins with the new moon in March. They have no certain and regular account of time and seasons, but compute the years by the days of the weeks, beginning the year of circumcision on Friday. They have likewise observed the motions of the heavens, the revolutions of the planets, and the signs of the zodiac, which, in the manner of the Europeans, they likewise divide into twelve signs; namely, in the spring, *Alimazi*, *Alicarobo*, *Alacossi*, *Libra*, *Scorpio*, *Sagittarius*: in summer, *Alizadi*, *Adalou*, *Alohotli*, *Capricorn*, *Aquarius*, *Pisces*: in autumn, *Alahemali*, *Azorou*, *Alizozo*, *Aries*, *Taurus*, *Gemini*: in winter, *Afarata*, *Alaafade*, *Afamboulo*, *Cancer*, *Leo*, *Virgo*. Thus are they correct by casual observations only; and accurate, without the knowledge or use of instruments; which evince, that the heavens are an universal

verfal book that is open to all nations, may be read in every climate, and be ferviceable even to the moft savage and ignorant.

It is the general opinion, that the perpetual enmity, in which the Madagafcarians feem to live with each other, arifes either from jealousy or theft; but while the former occasions many private animofities, the latter ufually terminates in war. Princes and nobles themfelves make no manner of confcience of ftealing their neighbours cattle privately; and their neighbours retaliate upon them in the fame manner whenever an opportunity presents. In this manner it fometimes only prompts the party to return the fame treatment; but, at other times it occasions a war to break out between them.

While Mr. Drury was in captivity in the ifland of Madagafcar, he was a flave to a chief of great confequence, who was neverthelefs very fond of ftealing his neighbour's cattle privately. He thus describes the diftreff which affected his mind, when he firft went with his mafter on one of thefe expeditions: "My mafter, fays he, attended by feveral of his flaves, took me alfo with him one evening, into the woods. I obferved great preparations made for killing and drefling a bullock, or fome fuch thing; but there being none to kill, and it being then dark, I perceived that they walked with great circumfpection, talked foftly, and testified all the fymptoms of fome fecret defign; upon this, the tears flood in my eyes, imagining that they intended to cut me up, and make a meal of me; but my fright was foon over, when I faw two flaves hauling along a bullock by a rope faftened to his horns, and my mafter ftriking his lance into his throat, in order to difpatch him. They immediately cut up the carcafe, and drefled his entrails after their own manner. The booty was equally divided, and I obferved that each man took care to hide his portion in fome private place, from whence he might convey it away by night. As foon as our bufinefs was over, we parted, fome one way, and fome another, for fear of being taken notice of. I now plainly perceived, that we were all this time plundering our neighbours of their property." Though, as we obferved before, the wives and flaves of the chiefs come creeping to lick their feet when they return from war, or from a grand hunting match of wild cattle; yet when they return from their thieving matches, no fuch homage or fubmiffion is paid to them.

The above gentleman has alfo given us a curious account of their manner of hunting wild cattle, which is one of the principal diverfions of thefe people, and is as follows: "It was now night, fays he, and they were going a beef hunting: for when they go out on purpofe to kill the beft beafts, they always make choice of the darkeft nights. They permitted me, on my request, to accompany them, but firft ordered me to wafh myfelf, as they themfelves did, that we might not fmell either of fmoke or fweat. I would have taken two lances according to cuftom, but they obliged me to leave one behind, left two together might rattle in my hand.

"Thefe cattle feed only in the night; and if all thefe precautions were not taken, they could never be furprized, for they are always on their guard, fnoiting with their nofes, and listening after their purfuers. We can hear them roar and bellow a great way off, by which we know where they are, and we are forced always to go round, till they are directly to the windward of us, for otherwife they would foon fcent us. As foon as we had got the wind and cattle right a head, and were within hearing, we walked with all the circumfpection imaginable, cropping the top of the grafs with our hands, as clofe as poffible, to mimic as well as we could the noife a cow makes when fhe bites it. The moment they heard us, they were all hufh, not one of them bellowed or grazed, but feemed to listen with the utmoft attention; which when we perceived, we all flood ftill likewife without a whifper, whilst three or four, who beft underftood the nature of it, continued cropping the grafs. When the cattle had listened till, as we imagined, they took us for fome of their own fpecies, they returned to their grazing, and we walked with caution nearer, ftill mimicking them as we moved foftly along. Deean Murnanzac (one of the chiefs) ordered me to keep behind, left they fhould difcern my white fkin, and be ftartled; he alfo gave me his lambe to cover myfelf with, which was a large piece of black filk; fo that, as the grafs was above knee deep, if I had been near them, they could have feen nothing but my face.

"We got at length among them, fo that one of our men, with fome grafs in his hand, and under the cover of a bufh, took hold of the dug of a cow, and finding that fhe gave no milk, he concluded that fhe was not lean:

for which reafon he ftruck his lance infantly into her belly, and drew it out again, making no other motion. The cow, when wounded, will give a fpring perhaps, and make a noife as if another had run her horns againft her; but this is fo common among them, that the herd is not any ways difturbed by it; fo that our people ftuck three or four after this manner, and left them with an intention to come the next morning and trace them by their blood, for it is very dangerous to keep too near them in the night. As foon as they find themfelves forely wounded, they run from their companions, and will attack the firft man they fee. They are generally found actually dead, or fallen down in fome wood or fhelter of bufhes, as if they induftrioufly endeavoured to conceal themfelves at thefe times.

"Soon after this beef-hunting, we had an accidental diversion of another kind; our dogs had got the fcent of fome wild hogs that were got into a thicket, and were very bufy in running round it, but could find no entrance for a confiderable time; at length, however, they found the path which the fwine had made, and attempted to enter the wood by it: the paffage was defended by a large boar who fought the dogs with great fury, and wounded one of them in a desperate manner. Now what with the dogs on one hand, and the fwine on the other, there was fuch a yelping, grunting, and howling, that the woods rang with their noife; and one would have imagined all the hogs in the ifland had met there by confent, in order to revenge their quarrel upon us. We laid down our burdens, and fome of us went up to them armed with guns and lances; Deean Murnanzac fhoot the boar that wounded his dog; whereupon another, in an inftant, defended the entrance, and fought fo refolutely, that neither the dogs, nor we ourfelves, could come near the cattle that were within, till we had made a paffage behind them with our hatchets and lances; and then fired upon fome of the moft refolute who turned upon us: the reft, perceiving themfelves attacked behind, fought their way through the dogs, and ran away, with the dogs after them; when words cannot defcribe the noife there was, efpecially after a number of them were wounded by our men with their fire."

With refpect to the political ftate and government of this ifland, the accounts tranfmitted to us differ very much from each other, which cannot be imputed to any want of authenticity in the feveral authors, but to the revolutions which have fo frequently happened; fo that different writers, in treating of the political ftate of Madagafcar, at various periods, muft of courfe vary from each other exceedingly. Hence Vincentius Albus and Gaspar de San Bernardino have informed us, that this ifland was divided into fix diftinct kingdoms, whose fovereigns were at continual variance with each other; and Marcus Paulus, the Venetian, tells us, that in his time it was governed by only four fovereigns. By later accounts, however, it is certain, that every province hath its particular fovereign, or lord, who is called deean, or dian; and this fovereign lord appoints a tiloubei, or governor, over every village in his territories.

We have the following defcription of one of thefe fovereigns, given us by Mr. Drury, who was prefented to him. His hair was twifted in knots, beginning at the crown of the head, where they formed a fmall circle: below them was another ring of knots, and thus they were continued in feveral circles, each longer than that above it. On fome of thefe knots hung fine beads; he had alfo a forehead-piece of beads, that hung fo low as to reach his nofe. About his neck he had a fine necklace, formed of two ftrings of beads, feveral of which were of gold; this necklace hung down before in the manner of an alderman's chain, and on each wrift he had five or fix filver bracelets, and four rings of gold upon his fingers. On each ancle were near twenty ftrings of beads ftrung very clofe, and exactly fitted to his legs. He had a filk mantle over his fhoulders, and another piece of filk, as ufual, about his waift. But thefe princes differ as much in the difpofition of their ornaments, as in their paffions.

The fovereigns of this ifland, though they have an abfolute power over the lives of their fubjects, and fometimes kill with their own hand thofe who exasperate them, will neverthelefs talk familiarly with every body, and ftill preferve a decent ftate. They ufually give audience to their fubjects fitting crofs-legged on a mat. Thefe princes have no regular bodies of troops trained to war, but make ufe of their vaffals, who endeavour to imitate their bravery; but generally fly when they fet them the example, or when they are killed. Their arms are lances, hatchets made in the country, and guns purchafed of the Europeans, who frequent the different parts of the ifland:

In this island, the civil government is not dependent on edicts or public instruments; nor is there a written law in the whole country. The first guide of these people is a kind of natural law, arising from the common occurrences of life, founded on the feelings of human nature, resulting from reason, and handed down by tradition from father to son.

Here are three kinds of these traditional or oral laws; viz. 1. Maffindili, or the law of the prince; 2. Maffimpoh, or the law of individuals; and, 3. Maffintanc, or the general law or custom of the island; all of which appear to be founded, for the most part, on good sense, and natural justice.

The law of the prince respects his peculiar prerogatives, and shews how far his will should be limited, and how far his power extended. The second, or the law of individuals, is of a domestic nature, and respects each individual, his manner of living, his deportment according to his circumstances, his behaviour to persons of his own family, or to his immediate neighbours. The third kind, is the universal law of the country, or what may be called the common law. It regards all occurrences, offences, and complaints which are of a public and material nature, or which in any measure affect the welfare of the public in general.

By the law of the prince, or the prerogative law, (which is of the first kind) it is made death to lie with one of the sovereign's wives.

According to the laws of the second kind, if a man is detected in robbing his neighbour of an ox or a cow, he is obliged to restore it ten fold. Also, if a man borrows an ox or a cow of his neighbour, and does not return it in a year's time, six calves are looked upon as an equivalent for the ox; and if he neglects payment at that time, those calves are supposed to be three steers, and three heifers; and their increase, which, by a fair computation, arises by their growth and production, is the man's right of whom the beast was borrowed. And if it go on for ten years, or any longer time, it is computed what three bulls and three cows might produce in that time, all which becomes the creditor's property.

The laws of the third kind, or those of a general nature, are: if a man has a criminal conversation with the wife of another man who is his superior, he forfeits thirty head of cattle, besides beads and shovels in abundance; but if the men are of equal degree, then the fine is only twenty head of cattle. If any one maliciously assaults another, and breaks a leg or an arm, he is fined fifteen head of cattle, as a forfeit to the party injured. If any one breaks the head of another, and the aggrieved party has not returned the blow, he receives three beeves by way of damage. If any one steals another's hive of honey, and is caught in the fact, the fine is three iron shovels; for it is to be observed (as trade is by way of barter), that iron shovels, hoes, &c. are a kind of small money among these people. If one man's cattle breaks into another's plantation, the owner, for every beast found there, must give an iron shovel. If two men quarrel, and one happens to curse the other's father or mother, whether they be living or dead, and his antagonist has so much command of himself as to refrain from cursing the other's father or mother, he recovers two beeves as a compensation. If any one is found guilty of stealing Guiney corn, caravances, potatoes, or the like, out of any of the plantations, he forfeits a cow and a calf to the owner; but if the damage done is supposed to require a greater forfeit, more is then to be given.

Before we conclude this section, it will be proper to take notice, that to the south-west of Madagascar, are a people who seem almost of a different species from the other inhabitants of the island. These are called Virzimbers. Their heads are of a very singular shape, the hinder part being as flat as a trencher, and the forehead nearly so, which, it is observed, was probably occasioned by their pressing the child's head from its birth. Their hair is not long, like that of the other natives, nor is it quite so woolly as the hair of the inhabitants of Guiney.

These people have a language peculiar to themselves, though they speak that of the island. Their religion is likewise different from that of the other natives, they having no owley (a kind of portable images) in their houses; but pay an extraordinary attention to the new moon, and to several animals, as a cock, a lizard, and some others. When they sit down to their meals, they take a bit of meat, and throwing it over their head, say, "There is a bit for the spirit." Then cutting four more little bits, they throw them to the lords of the four quarters of the earth.

This is the general practice of those who have a regard for religion, though there are many who neglect it; just as, in Europe, many neglect saying grace at their meals. But these people, like those in the other parts of the island, have neither priests nor temples; nor is difference of religion considered as any crime by them.

The Virzimbers make very good earthen ware, as pots, dishes, and jugs, glazing them both within and without; and in many other respects they are very ingenious artificers.

Several Englishmen, we are told, have at various times been driven by distress on the southern coast of Madagascar, and there detained many years, among these were Robert Drury, a youth (to whose minutes we are indebted for several remarkable particulars relating to this island) and Mr. John Benbow, son of the famous admiral of that name. Drury, after having been fifteen years a slave, was redeemed by captain William Mackett, and brought to England in 1716. He resided in London many years, and there published an account of his adventures. Benbow also lived many years after his return to England, and wrote a description of the southern part of the island, which was handed about in manuscript among his acquaintance, and by that means was lost; this curious performance having been in vain attempted to be recovered by the family.

S E C T. V.

Containing an Account of the Religious Ceremonies and Superstitious Rites of the Inhabitants of MADAGASCAR; their Form of Circumcision; some Particulars relative to their Funerals; and of the Ombiaffes, or pretended Magicians.

THE inhabitants of Madagascar have no particular places of religious worship; nor do they offer up prayers, unless their occasional incantations may be so called, notwithstanding they adore and acknowledge one Supreme God, whom they call Deaan Unghorras, which signifies the Lord above; who created the heavens and the earth, all animated beings, and an innumerable host of angels, in seven days. Yet after having this just idea of the deity, they have not any notion that it is necessary to worship him, or pay him divine honours. They likewise say, there are four other lords, each of whom has his respective quarter of the world, as the northern, the eastern, the southern, and the western lords. The eastern lord they say is the dispenser of plagues and miseries to mankind, by the permission or command of the Supreme God; and though the others also fulfil his commands, they are chiefly the dispensers of benefits. They consider their lords as mediators between men and the great God, on which account they have an high veneration for them, and recommend themselves to them in their prayers and offerings.

Almost every person is supposed to have a distinct and separate spirit who presides over his actions, and presents his prayers to the Lord above; and the people expect, that after a sacrifice, these spirits will tell them in dreams what they are to do, and warn them of the dangers that will await them. This naturally renders them superstitious with respect to dreams, and their most common concerns.

They perform the rite of circumcision, but with very different ceremonies from those practised by the Jews and Mahometans, from whom they are said to have received the custom, by means of Arabs, who came to settle there. This ceremony is performed every third year; at which time they build a hall raised upon wooden pillars, and encompassed with a pallisado of stakes. The great lord of the province kills a bull, and having spilt the blood of it, mixed with honey-wine, round the building, he opens the pallisado and plants at that opening a banana-tree, with leaves and fruit, on which hangs a girdle tinged with the blood of the bull: after which that place is looked upon as sacred; no person approaches it but with the utmost respect, and none enter into it.

The fathers of the children who are to be circumcised fast during the eight days of the moon of March, and the last day they walk abroad two and two, carrying the children on their shoulders, wrapped up in paans. The young men who are not married follow them, and holding their sabres in their hands, they make threatening motions with them, as though they were going to attack an enemy. After they have walked three times round the donac (the

lords

lord's house), they stop before the door, and, dividing themselves into troops, they exercise themselves a long while in feigned attacks, till being tired at last, they are obliged to sit down on mats prepared for them.

The next day a priest or marabout runs like a madman into all the cottages, in order to drive away the evil spirit out of the bodies of these children; he threatens him, and at length makes the people believe that he has forced him to come into the body of a chicken, which is tied up in a basket, and, crushing it to death, he tells them the children are delivered from that evil spirit. The fathers and mothers present themselves afterwards before the great lord, with as many oxen and as many black chickens as there are children to be circumcised, and the lord appoints the day on which the ceremony is to be performed.

That day being come, the lord, sitting at the entry of the hall, receives, on a table covered with paans or carpets, the offerings of the mothers; then he enters into the hall, and sits down in the middle of it, and the fathers holding their children on a very smooth stone, the lord cuts off the prepuce; which done, the father immediately cuts the throat of the chicken, makes the blood of it drop on the ground, and gives the child back to the mother; who, dipping cotton into the blood of the ox that has been killed, and into that of the chicken also, ties it about the wound of the child.

The following account of their method of thanksgiving after a successful war, is extracted from Drury. "The inhabitants (says he) have in all their houses, a small portable utensil, which is devoted to religious uses, and is a kind of household altar, which they call the owley. It is made of a peculiar wood, in small pieces neatly joined, and making almost the form of a half-moon, with the horns downwards, between which are placed two alligators teeth. This is adorned with various kinds of beads, and such a fash fastened to it behind as a man ties about his waist when he goes to war. However, I observed that they brought two forks from the woods, and fixed them in the ground, on which was laid a beam, slender at each end, and about six feet long, with two or three pegs in it, and upon this they hung the owley. Behind it was a long pole, to which a bullock was fastened with a cord. They had a pan full of live coals, upon which they threw an aromatic gum, and planted it under the owley. Then they took a small quantity of hair from the tail, chin, and eye-brows of the ox, and put them on the owley. Then my master used some particular gestures with a large knife in his hand, and made a formal incantation, in which the people joined. In the next place, they threw the ox on the ground, with his legs tied fast together, and my master cut his throat." Thus this ceremony ended; and this is deemed an oblation for having obtained a victory over an enemy.

These people have a great veneration for their forefathers, and have an assurance of their spirits always existing, which appears in almost every circumstance of the few religious acts which they perform. The burial of the dead is very singular and solemn. As they treat each other in all calamities and misfortunes with great humanity, so they frequently visit the sick, and contribute all in their power to assist the afflicted family, and to restore those to health who are ill. When a person dies, all the relations and neighbours come to the house, the women lament, and the men assist in preparing for the funeral, the manner of which we have already described.

Each family has a peculiar burying-place, which none dare to break into; it is enclosed with a kind of pallisades. No person is permitted to enter these burying-grounds but some of the nearest relations. They commonly go once a year to these burying-places to clear them of weeds, but never enter them till they have burnt a bullock or a cow before the sepulchre.

Their method of mourning doth not consist in the colour or form of the garment, but in shaving their heads; and every man under the jurisdiction of a king, or lord, who does not do this at the death of his prince, is esteemed disaffected to the royal family.

These people are extremely superstitious in their implicit obedience to all the directions of their ombiaffes, or magicians, who pretend to know the secret powers of nature, and how to engage the assistance of the guardian spirits on all occasions. Nothing of importance can be undertaken without consulting them; and it appears that some of the lords, who are men of sense, keep one of these conjurors out of policy, only to amuse their people, who, they think, ought to be humoured in their bigotry,

and captivated by the artifices of these impostures, in order to render them more tractable and obedient. These ombiaffes, however, never interfere in the acts of their religion, except in fixing the proper minute of performing them: nor in religious matters is any one offended because his neighbour has some ceremonies of his own, and deviates from the forms generally practised.

The first order of ombiaffes is usually composed of white Madagascrians, who practise physic, teach the Arabic language, compose the ziridzi, or Arabic words, written on small billets, which are used as charms; act as school-masters, conjurors, wizards, &c. The second order are black ombiaffes; and these, by pretending to geomancy, or the art of divination, upon all occasions, live with great reputation among the people, and accumulate considerable profits to themselves. There is also a class of inferior ombiaffes, which are placed upon the footing of quacks, as not being deemed so regular in their profession as the two former orders. These, however, visit the sick, not to administer medicines, but to predict the event of the disorder; their predictions usually being favourable or unfavourable according to the amount of the fee.

Most of their traditions and religious principles have been introduced by the Mahometan Arabs, who were the progenitors of those people called the Madagascrian whites; it is therefore no wonder that they should have made such a selection of Christian, Jewish and Mahometan tenets, and have interlarded them with absurdities of their own; nor can we be surprised that they should have attempted to make the Mahometan the prevailing and primitive religion, since, where chronology is unknown, any error which dates alone can rectify may be imbibed. However, they are in a great measure right in their notions respecting Christ, as they allow that he was sent by God; that he was not begotten of man, that he was born of a virgin; that he was God and man; that he was a great prophet, and that he was crucified by the Jews; but then they add, that God, not thinking proper that he should die, substituted a malefactor in his place, who died instead of him. The latter circumstance might originate from the scriptural account of the malefactor who was crucified at the same time with Christ; but must have been adopted from their total ignorance of the end for which the Redeemer of mankind came into the world.

SECT. V.

Of the History and Revolutions in the Island of MADAGASCAR.

AS the people of this island are without public records, or the chronological knowledge of events, consequently the antient history of the country cannot be given by us. All that is known is from oral tradition; but the transactions thus handed down are too futile and vague, and too much interwoven with fiction, to merit notice. We are indeed told, that the province of Anossi, which has been better known to the Europeans than any other part of the island, was previous to the arrival of the French, governed by a sovereign, who was not only honoured as a king, but almost revered as a god. His name was Andian Ramach, and on his demise devolved to Andian Maroarive, who was a Christian, having been educated at Goa, and baptized by the jesuits. He however, soon turned to paganism, and was afterwards, on the attack of the town of Franchere by the French, killed by a musket-ball.

In the year 1642, captain Rivault, a Frenchman, obtained permission from cardinal Richlieu, for nine years, to send ships and forces to Madagascar, and the neighbouring islands, in order to establish a colony and plantation, and establish an exclusive commerce there. For the said purpose, this gentleman erected a society, under the name of a French East India company, and the grant was drawn out, with the addition of ten years more privilege: so that it extended to the year 1661. In the mean time, that is, immediately subsequent to the making out of the grant, A. D. 1642, the first ship was sent under the command of captain Coquet, who was going to load ebony at Madagascar, on the account of himself and some private merchants; but had orders to take with him two governors, whose names were Pronis and Fauquenbourg, and twelve other Frenchmen, these being commanded to land and remain there, till the arrival of a ship from France, which was in November following.

In September captain Coquet arrived at Madagascar, having in his way anchored at the island of Bourbon, which

which he took possession of in the name of the king of France; touching afterwards at the ille of St. Mary, he did the same; and, failing to the bay of Antongil in Madagascar, he acted in a similar manner. Pronis and Fauquembourg were at length landed in the port of St. Lucia, in the province of Manghabei, which is one of the principal places in the island.

On the first of April in the ensuing year, the expected ship from France arrived. It was named the St. Lawrence, and was under the command of captain Giles Relimont. This officer brought seventy men with him, to reinforce Pronis. The inhabitants, jealous that the French would obtain too firm a footing in their country, meditated an opposition; but their intentions were prevented, or at least delayed, by the prudent conduct and timely presents of Pronis. Upon this success, Pronis sent twelve men to penetrate into the province of Matatan, six of whom were cut off by the natives, and the rest compelled to retreat; and soon after captain Relimont's son and six sailors were murdered in the province of Vohitbang. This opposition was owing to the secret intrigues of the leading men in Anossi, who, from their maritime situation, did not dare to offend the French themselves; but upon all occasions, stirred up the people of other provinces to oppose and murder them.

Captain Pronis, in 1644, thought proper to remove from St. Lucia to the bay of Tholongare, where he began to fortify himself; and having reduced almost the whole province of Anossi by force of arms, he built fort Dauphin, the situation of which was excellent, the harbour commodious and finely sheltered, and the entrance very convenient for shipping of any burden. Behind the fort, he erected several other buildings, with large inclosures, which produced various sorts of vegetables and fruits. However, in 1650, the fort, by some unforeseen accident, took fire, and was totally destroyed; but was soon afterwards rebuilt, and strongly garrisoned; the French being always at variance with the natives, and frequently at war with them.

The celebrated French governor, Flacourt, in the year 1651, at the head of eighty Frenchmen, and a great number of armed negroes, ravaged the country to a considerable distance from the fort, carrying off great quantities of cattle, and destroying all the houses and huts in his way. This occasioned the natives to conceive an extraordinary aversion to the French; and what added to their dislike was, that whenever any prisoners fell into the hands of the French, they looked upon them all in an equal light, and sold them indiscriminately to the then Dutch governor of the island of Mauritius, not making any distinction between deacons or lords, freemen or slaves; or shewing any greater respect to their ladies, when captives, than to women of a lower rank. After these transactions, the French, finding that the idea of conquering Madagascar was chimerical; and the danger and expences of maintaining a colony, and keeping up a fortress there, were not recompensed by the profits accruing from the settlement, thought proper to abandon the island, and all projects relative to the reduction of it.

Mr. Drury, during his captivity in this island, has collected several traditional accounts given by the natives, of the attempts made by the French to settle on and subdue Madagascar, which being extremely curious, we shall here present to our readers for their entertainment. "This part of the country (says he) to which the French have given the name of port Dauphin, is called Antenosa, in the Madagascar language. There came hither, upwards of a century ago, two French ships, on what account I cannot learn; however, they came to an anchor close under land, in a very good harbour. The captains, observing that there was plenty of cattle, all kinds of provisions, and a very good soil, determined that one of them should stay here, and establish a settlement. Hereupon they cast lots who should continue on the island, and the person on whom the lot fell was captain Mesmerico, who landed with two hundred white men, well armed, and provided with store of ammunition, and other necessities for the building of a fort, which they immediately began.

No sooner had the natives observed their intention, but they used their utmost art and industry to prevent them: this created a war, in which the French were the victors, who took at several times a great number of prisoners. In this war, the king Antenosa and his brother were killed; and, amongst many other children that were made captives, the king's son was one. When the French had suppressed the natives, and completed their fort, the ships

set sail for France, and carried with them this young prince, and several other persons of distinction.

The natives, about a year after this expedition, began to be better reconciled to the French, notwithstanding they were secretly disgusted at the indignity offered to their young prince, and could by no means relish the government and direction of foreigners: however, the French, by their artful and cunning deportment and insinuations, gained so much friendship among them, that they married, and lived up and down in several towns, at some distance from each other; and not above five or six in a place. They occasionally assisted the natives in their wars against a king that resides to the northward, whom they defeated, took a great number of slaves, and many cattle. In this manner they lived for some years with great tranquillity, neglecting their fort, and extending themselves all over the whole country of Antenosa: but at last, as their families grew numerous, the natives grew jealous; and recollecting how inhumanly they had treated their prince, and perceiving them thus scattered and dispersed, they thought this a favourable opportunity to free themselves from a foreign yoke. Hereupon they formed a conspiracy to cut off all the white men in one day, and the Wednesday following it was put in execution, not leaving a white man alive in the place.

A French ship soon after came thither as usual; when the maurominders, or slaves, who retained a respect for the French, got a canoe, and went off to them, and informed them that their countrymen were all massacred. The captain was startled, and deeply concerned at this melancholy news, but could not revenge their cause, being glad to steer another course, without making the least attempt to go on shore; so that the natives, having now nobody to interrupt them, put their government into its original form, and made choice of one for their king who was the nearest related to the former; there being no other son but him whom the French took captive.

They lived peaceably under this new king's direction for several years, no French ship ever presuming to come near them; but now and then an English ship paid them a visit; and they traded in a fair and honest manner with the officers on board. But some years after this, a French ship, homeward bound from India, happened to be in great distress for want of water and provisions, and could not compass the cape. Though port Dauphin lay very commodious for the captain, yet he knew that the natives were their implacable enemies, neither was he ignorant of the real occasion; and therefore resolved to make use of the following stratagem. Under pretence of being sent ambassador from the French king, he went on shore in great pomp, and with proper attendants. The ship lay at anchor as near the shore as possible, in order to be within reach of their guns, in case any acts of hostility should be shewn them. The natives, who came down to them, asked if they were English or French? They replied, the latter; but they were sent by express orders from the French king, with some valuable presents, and were inclined to make a treaty of peace. The king they had last chosen, whom we have mentioned before, died about a month before their arrival, and no new one was then elected in his stead; but the old queen (mother of the young prince, whom they had so clandestinely conveyed away some years before) being then alive, gave directions that the ambassadors should be conducted to her house. His men carried a number of things of no great value with them; but such, however, as they knew would be highly agreeable in this country. These were formally presented in the name of the French king; and the queen testified her satisfaction in the reception of them, by entertaining the captain in the most elegant manner she could devise. This day passed in compliments, mutual presents, and such other ceremonies as were consistent with their ideas of public grandeur.

The next day the queen sent for the captain, and informed him, that she expected his men, as well as himself, should take the oaths, according to the custom of her country. The captain having readily agreed to her proposition, the ceremony was performed after the following manner: The holy owley (of which we have already given some account) was brought out, and hung upon a piece of wood laid cross-wise on two forks, all which were cut down on this solemn occasion; as was also a long pole, to which a bullock was fastened: this was provided by the queen, and when killed, they took part of the tail, and some of the hair of the nose and eyebrows, and put them on some live coals under the owley: they then took some of the blood, which they sprinkled upon

upon it, and upon the beam whereon it hung; the liver also was roasted, and a piece placed on it; two other pieces were put on two lances, which were stuck in the ground betwixt the queen and the ambassador: after which the queen swore first to this or the like effect; "I swear by the great God above, by the four gods of the four quarters of the world, by the spirits of my forefathers, and before this holy owley; that neither I, nor any of my offspring, nor any of my people, who assist at this solemnity, or their issue, shall or will wittingly or willingly kill any Frenchman, unless he first proves the aggressor: and if we or any of us, mean any other than the plain and honest truth by this protestation, may this liver, which I now eat, be converted into poison, and destroy me immediately." Having repeated this form of words, she took the piece of liver off the lance, and eat it; which when she had done, the sham ambassador followed her example.

"After this solemn contract was concluded, the captain, or quondam ambassador, stayed on shore about two or three days, and sent on board what provisions his people wanted. A firm friendship being now established between them, they strove who should outvie the other in the arts of courtesy and complaisance. The captain invited the queen to go on board his vessel, and she very readily went with several of the chief of her people, who were treated by the captain with great magnificence, and to her intire satisfaction.

"When the queen returned on shore in the ship's boat, she stood looking about her for some time after she was landed. The Frenchmen, not regarding the presence of the black queen, stripped, and swam about to wash and cool themselves; her majesty, observing the whiteness of their skins, indulged her curiosity in looking on them: at last, perceiving one man, whose skin was much darker than the rest of his companions, as he came towards the shore, and was going to put on his cloaths, she espied a particular mole under his left breast; she went to him immediately, and, looking more wishfully on it, would not permit him to put on his shirt; but claimed him as her son, who had been carried away when a child many years before; and had not patience to restrain herself, but ran to him, (crying with joy, that she had found her son) threw her arms about his neck, and almost stifled him with kisses. This surprised all the people, as well blacks as whites; till having recovered herself a little, she turned to them and told them this was her son; and shewed them the private mark. They who had known the young prince, drew near, viewed the mole, and acquiesced with her, that it must be he, and no other.

"The Frenchmen could not tell what to make of this odd discovery, nor what fatal consequences might possibly attend it. The captain, therefore, taking the man aside, advised him to give as artful answers as he could to what questions they should ask him, for their safety's sake. Now there were several blacks who spoke French, and by their means the Frenchman as soon understood the queen as they did. She desired they would ask him, If he knew the country he was born in? He answered, he could remember nothing of it, for he was carried from his native place when a child. She asked him, If he knew her? He said, he could not pretend to say absolutely that he did: but he thought she bore a great resemblance to somebody he was much used to when young. This confirmed them more and more in their opinion: as to his being white skinned, they thought that might easily be from his wearing cloaths, during the time he was absent from home: and his hair was as black as theirs; so that it was concluded it must be their prince.

"The old queen was transported with joy at finding her son, and the natives were for chusing him their king directly, he being the next heir. They asked what was his name? He told them, he never remembered that he was called by any other name than that of Samuel; but they gave him what they thought was his original name, compounded with Tuley, which denoted his return, or arrival, so they called him Deean Tuley-Noro; and he was also further saluted immediately with the title of panasker, that is, king of Antenofia.

"The French captain and his men were surprised to find the man act his part so dexterously, not perceiving at first that he was in earnest, and was as fond of being their king, as they were of electing him; though it was so heathenish a place. He had here twelve thousand fighting men immediately under his command; and a fine spacious and plentiful country. The ship's crew sailed away, and left him behind them; but as often as the French had occasion for what this island afforded, they made it a con-

stant practice to put into port Dauphin, and traffic with them.

"About three years before we were cast away, continued Drury, a French ship happening to be there, some of the men got drunk; and in a quarrel with some of the natives, told them, that king Samuel was not their lawful prince; but that he was still resident in France. This might have proved of very fatal consequence to him, but he took such care to prevent it as no one could justly blame him for: he sent for the man who made this public declaration, and ordered him to be shot to death; he commanded likewise his companions to depart forthwith, and assured them, that if ever they, or any of their countrymen, presumed to come within his territories again, they should be severely punished.

"It was once expected, says Mr. Salmon, that the pirates would have made a settlement in this island, and usurped the dominion of it, having six or seven sail of ships, with which they used to infest the Indian seas, and carry their prizes into a place of security, on the north-east part of Madagascar, where they possessed themselves of a harbour of difficult access, and defended from storms by the little island of St. Mary's, which lies before it in seventeen degrees south latitude.

"The court of England, about the year 1700, sent a squadron of four men of war, commanded by commodore Warren, to drive the pirates from thence; but he, finding it impossible to come at them, published a proclamation, in pursuance of his instructions, offering a pardon to all that would come in, except Avery their leader; but not a man came over to him. The commodore afterwards proceeded to fort St. George in the East Indies, where the writer of these papers saw him. This gentleman used his utmost diligence to meet with the pirates in the seas of India, but to no purpose; and having left one or two of his ships on the shoals near Malacca, returned with the rest to England: however, his expedition had this good effect, that the pirates durst not stir out from Madagascar; and, finding they were so narrowly watched, they agreed to divide what they had got, and disperse themselves. Two of them were afterwards taken by the Dutch at Malacca; and, being sent to fort St. George, were brought over to England in the Howland, being the same ship in which the author came home in the year 1701.

We find, however, from more recent accounts, that Avery dissipated his immense wealth, returned to England incognito, lived many years privately and poorly, and at length died in great indigence and misery at Biddeford in Devonshire, thus concluding a life of wickedness in a death of anguish and unavailing remorse.

Another English pirate, named Plaintain, settled here about the year 1740, and attempted to profit by the divisions among the petty princes of the island, sometimes taking the part of one, and sometimes of another, by which conduct he made himself respectable among the natives, till each individual of his crew affecting the state of nobility, and growing too proud to be commanded, the captain found himself intirely deserted, when, venturing to sea in an open boat, with only one associate, he landed on the coast of Malabar in India, and entered into the service of the celebrated piratical prince Angria, whose fleet were destroyed in the year 1755 by admiral Watson, six of his forts were levelled with the ground, and his principal fort was afterwards taken by general Clive and the English fleet in 1756, together with his treasure; and his family were at the same time made prisoners by admiral Watson, who behaved towards them with the greatest generosity and humanity.

We shall conclude this section with an account of the places where the Europeans have attempted to make settlements on the island of Madagascar; the most remarkable of which are the bay of Antongil, the island of St. Mary, fort Dauphin, and the bay of St. Augustine.

1. The bay of St. Antongil is situated on the eastern coast, in the sixteenth degree of south latitude; it extends about fourteen leagues due north, and is nine leagues broad at its entrance. In the bottom of the bay is a small island, which affords plenty of provisions, good water, and a safe harbour for shipping. This bay was once frequented by the Dutch, who had a kind of factory there; consisting of fourteen men, for buying of slaves and rice; but some of them died with sickness, and others were murdered by the inhabitants, whom they treated with insolence.

2. The island of St. Mary, also called Nossi Ibrahim, or the isle of Abraham, is situated to the southward of the bay of Antongil, in the seventeenth degree of south latitude, and is four miles long from north to south,

but its greatest breadth from east to west does not exceed nine miles; the nearest part is about two leagues distant from the coast.

This island is entirely surrounded with rocks, over which canoes may pass at high water; but at ebb there is not above half a foot depth, and on these rocks may be seen the finest white coral in the world. Ambergris is often found on the eastern coast of the island, and the island itself affords many sorts of gums. But we shall give a fuller description of this island hereafter.

3. Fort Dauphin, which was erected by the French, is situated near the south-east point of Madagascar, in twenty-four degrees twenty-five minutes south latitude, near the mouth of the river Franchere; but the French finding that the trade there did not answer the expence of keeping the colony, quitted it long since.

4. St. Augustine's Bay is on the western coast of Madagascar, in twenty-three degrees thirty minutes south latitude, that is, just under the tropic of Capricorn. It is formed by the mouth of the river Yong Lahe. The English formerly traded at this bay, and at other places on the western side of the island, for slaves.

The Europeans who frequented the island of Madagascar, purchased scarce any thing there but slaves and cattle, which the natives exchanged for guns, gun-powder, beads, cloathing, and hardware; and here the ships bound to and from India sometimes stop, in order to furnish themselves with water, fresh provisions, and fruits, for which they give pieces of silk, calicoe, and some of the above articles, by way of barter.

It is thought the French will again attempt to establish themselves in this island, if not prevented by the other maritime powers.

S E C T. VII.

Describing the Island and Streight of BABELMANDEL, near the Red Sea; also the Islands of MASUA, MARATA, SWAKEN, and BARBORA.

THE streights of Babelmandel join the Indian ocean to the Red sea. The name given to them is a corruption of the words babal mandul, which latter signifies "the gate of weeping," an epithet given by the Arabs to these streights, on account of the danger that attended the navigation of them, which was conceived to be so great that when any of their relations passed them, they put on mourning, as for persons whom they had given over for lost. Nevertheless, many, allured by the hope of gain engaged in these voyages, notwithstanding the dangers they were exposed to.

The Arabian gulf, or Red sea, which includes the streights of Babelmandel, begins on that part of the ocean, bounded, on the side of Africa, by cape Guardafuy, of Old Aromata; and, on the side of Asia, by cape Tartak. The shores run westward from these capes as far as Aden and Zeyla; and proceed from thence, narrowing with desert coasts, and with little windings, till they meet with two promontories in the mouth of the Arabic gulf.

The part of the promontory on the Arabian side, was antiently called Possodium, but the name of that on the European side is lost. The Arabians and Indians called the intermediate streight Albano, which signifies the gates or mouths, as it is not above six leagues wide, and so interspersed with little islands, as scarce to admit of shipping to pass through its narrow channels. These small islands are full of bays, ports, nooks, creeks, &c. the ebbing and flowing of the waters into and from which greatly impede the navigation here.

The cape, on the side of Arabia, appears to those at sea, to be an island at a considerable distance from the main land. The island of Robon, or Roboan (signifying, in Arabic, a pilot) is not far from the cape. This appellation was given to the island, because several pilots, who understood the navigation of these streights, resided here.

The island of Robon is very flat, and not two miles in compass. The water from here to the promontory is so shallow, that, when the tide is low, it may easily be forded.

Here is another island about a league farther: it is something bigger than Robon's island; but, though it has a very good haven, is unfrequented.

It must naturally be supposed, that, by means of so many islands, several channels are made; yet as there is eleven fathom depth quite through, and neither flat shoals, nor any other obstruction, the principal of them may be

passed in the midst, steering north-west by west, or south-east by east.

Though the other channels are not quite so wide as the above, they may be as easily navigated; and as the Arabians do not appear at present to be afraid of sailing on these streights, we may suppose they are either more skilful in maritime affairs, or less fearful than they formerly were, when they named them.

The island of Bab or Babelmandel, is situated towards the entrance into the Red sea, and forms one side of the streights of Babelmandel, lying in twelve degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and is about five miles in circumference. It was formerly called the island of Diodorus, but now the Port of Afflictions. This island stands in the very middle of the streights, about four miles from the Arabian, and the same distance from the Abyssinian coast, directly opposite to cape Zeila. Hence it forms two fine channels, one on each side of it, and from its situation might, if properly fortified, command both. Antient historians affirm, that the kings of Egypt fortified these channels, by laying booms or chains across both, from the island to the continent on each side. This island is important on no other account than its admirable situation, as neither grain, roots, herbage, or fruits, are produced in it. However the Arabs of the kingdom of Adel and the Abyssinians formerly contended with great fury for the possession of it, and became masters of it alternately, till the Portuguese took it, and demolished the fortifications. Since the Turks have possessed themselves of both shores, the island is in a manner deserted, being a sandy, barren soil, with a few poor inhabitants, and affording scarce any sustenance for man or beast.

The famous Don Juan de Castro, one of the commanders in the fleet of the Portuguese, (and not Don Stefano de Gama) has given us the best account extant of the other islands in the streights of Babelmandel, the navigation of these streights, and of the Red sea, with the entrance into the latter, which we shall here, for the entertainment of our readers, extract from the journals of his voyage from Goa to Suez.

De Castro, in passing the streights, made an observation at noon, and found the mouth of them to be in twelve degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and two hours after midnight the Portuguese set sail for the mouth of the streights. In the morning they saw both coasts, being nearer the Abeshim, between which and the first island they sailed north-west by west, the wind blowing hard at east till noon. This coast was quite new to the Portuguese; their distance from land was about four leagues. An hour after sun rise they saw a range of islands, most of them very low, which extended north-west and south-east; as the coast did along which they lay, for about sixty leagues. They sailed with a fair wind in this channel of Abeshim, having islands on both sides all the way.

Ships cannot sail here by night, or without the wind in the poop; for if it happens to change it is impossible to tack about or come to an anchor, till the ship arrives at the first islands, which are nine little ones. After having passed these, the sea becomes more open and free, but, towards the shore, there are several islands and rocks, which render the navigation dangerous if a vessel keeps too near the coast; and De Castro thinks that none should attempt the navigation of the streights of Babelmandel, or the Red sea, without a pilot belonging to the country. A little farther are seven small islands, called the Seven Sisters, between which and the shore are some very dangerous rocks. After having passed these, they arrived at the island of Sorbo, and anchored in nine fathom and a half water in a harbour of the same name.

The island of Sorbo, according to this journalist, is in fifteen degrees seven minutes north latitude. It is near twenty miles in circumference, and belongs to a great archipelago of islands, about four leagues from the Abyssinian coast, and twenty-four short of Masua. The Portuguese roved about this island, and perceived it was low and full of trees, but the trees were all short, or of the shrub kind; the plains were verdant, and they discovered the tracks of men and beasts in several places, though they did not happen to meet with either, a camel excepted, on which account they called it Camel island. After all their researches, they did not find any water, except in one well digged in a stone, and made principally for the reception of rain, as they conjectured.

After leaving Sorbo, they sailed among many islands, most of which were very low, and almost even with the sea. In their passage, they kept about a league to the right of them; and in the evening saw also to the right, about

four leagues distant, a very long range of islands, extending near five leagues in length, north-west and south-east, as near as could be judged. The depth of water was continually twenty-five fathom, in an oozy bottom; and the coasts here stretched north-west by west, and south-east by east.

After this, they entered the channel between the point of Dahlak and Shamoia; the island of Shamoia being the first they made of five very flat islands, which are situated between the said point and the main land. It is two leagues in compass, and contains a few springs and wells. There are several other small islands near this latter, the names of which are unknown, and the places where they are situated are too inconsiderable to deserve particular attention.

The island of Dahlak is situated near the coast of Habash or Abex, being about twenty leagues eastward from the continent, and about the same distance south of Masua. This island is near ninety miles in circumference, and is the largest and most considerable on the coast. The air is temperate and salubrious; the land well-watered and verdant, and the people numerous and robust. Great numbers of camels, oxen, goats, &c. feed in the pastures; the sea and rivers yield plenty of fish, and the inhabitants are profusely supplied with honey, corn, &c. from the continent.

The pearl fishery here, at which many of the natives are very dextrous, constitutes the chief wealth of the place; and the pearls found here are some of the finest in the universe. Besides pearls, this island produces many emeralds. We shall here, for the information of those not versed in natural history, give a description of both these.

The pearl is by some ranked a gem, yet is not properly so, being a hard white and beautiful substance, having usually a shining roundish body, found in a shell fish resembling an oyster. They have been highly valued in all ages, nevertheless proceed only from a distemper in the creature that produces them, being analogous to the bezoars, and other stony concretions in several kinds of animals. And what the ancients imagined to be a drop of dew concentered into a pearl in the body of the pearl fish (which they supposed rose from the bottom to the surface of the water to receive it) is nothing more than the matter destined to form and enlarge the shell, bursting from the vessels designed to carry it to the parts of the shell it should have formed, by which means these little concretions are produced.

The emerald, is the most beautiful of all the classes of coloured gems, when perfect. It is sometimes found in the roundish or pebble form; sometimes in the columnar or crystalline form: but the pebble emeralds are most valued. These are found loose in the earth of mountains, and in the beds of rivers they are, in their natural state, bright and transparent, though less glossy than the columnar ones. Emeralds have the green colour in all its different shades, from very dark to extremely pale, and are sometimes entirely colourless; when it is called white sapphire by the English jewellers.

Such of the inhabitants of Dahlak, as do not employ their time in fishing, are, in general, notorious pirates, and plunder all the ships that come in their way. They behave with asperity to all, but particularly to the Turks, when any of them are so unfortunate as to fall into their hands; and when they get home, they take a peculiar pleasure in boasting of their piratical exploits to their wives, children, and relations.

This island, with many others contiguous to it, are under the dominion of the king of Dahlak; and his subjects consist chiefly of Abyssinian Christians, or Christians of the Abyssinian church. Indeed some few Mahometans, of the sect of Hali, reside in his dominions; but these are very much oppressed by the king, and cordially hated by their Christian fellow subjects. The people of Dahlak, who appear to be of the Ethiopic race, are black and ill-favoured; but strong, robust, bold, daring, and loyal to their sovereign. They are extremely sagacious and crafty, fond of repeating and hearing entertaining tales, are very pleasant companions, and admirably skilled in story-telling.

The dress of these islanders is a large piece of silk or cotton (according to the respective ranks of the wearers) tied round the middle, and hanging down to the feet; but from the middle upwards, both sexes go naked. Their deportment is extremely courteous to each other, but they are very uncivil and cruel to strangers. They speak the Arabic language, intermixed with some Ethiopic words.

They manufacture the goat's hair, which is here very fine and long, into tolerable camblets. The soil in ge-

neral of this island is red; and though it does not produce much timber, yet it yields abundance of herbs. Here is a small insect resembling a bee, which feeds on a kind of gum, that distils from a tree which hath some similitude to a cherry-tree; and from this insect, it is said, they extract that gum-lac, used in varnishing, making sealing-wax, &c.

The island of Masua is only half a mile in length, and somewhat less in breadth. It is very flat, and lies very near the main land; that is, on the north-west side. It has a good harbour, secure in all weathers, the depth of the water being about eight or nine fathom, and the ground oozy. The entrance of this port is on the north-east side, towards the middle of the channel; for from the north-east point of the island there runs a shoal towards another point, so that ships must take care to keep the middle of the channel, which runs north-east and south-west, is very strait, and consequently dangerous.

With respect to the people here, they resemble those of Dahlak in customs, manners, vices, &c. and have likewise similar virtues. The men are also of two classes, those who follow traffic, or the pearl fishery, and those who live by piracy; yet both classes are looked upon in a light equally favourable, as piracy is not deemed criminal, or even dishonourable here. Whatever profits accrue from either trading are, by the men in general, applied to the purposes of gallantry, and the facilitating their amours; for the people here are very great votaries of Venus, and Cupid seems to reign with unbounded power; the men being as expert in intriguing, and the women as faithful in the arts of coquetry, as if they had been educated in much politer nations. As the people of Masua are extremely warm in their passions, both from their manner of living, and the natural heat of the climate; so their sanguine constitutions, and the heat of their imaginations, often occasion them to commit very rash actions, and their amours are frequently attended with a fatal catastrophe.

This island, with all the opposite coast, was formerly subject to the emperor of Abyssinia; but within the last century it was seized by the king of Dahlak, who resides chiefly here, for the convenience of carrying on a trade with the continent; from whence great quantities of gold and ivory are brought to him.

During the months of May and June, the air is exceedingly unhealthy, for want of wind; so that the king and principal inhabitants, during these months, retire to Dahlak.

Two other islands lie very near this, to the south and south-west: the largest is next the land; the other, lying towards the south-west, is very round. There are many shoals between this island and Masua; but galleys and row-vessels may pass at full sea in a channel that runs through the midst of them.

These people value themselves upon a tradition which they have among them, that the queen of Sheba crossed from the continent hither, and took shipping in their port, in order to visit king Solomon, to whom she carried immense riches.

There are some clusters of small inconsiderable islands between this and Marate, whose names are not known, and whose importance is so trifling, that geographers and navigators have not deemed them worth describing.

The island of Marate is low and barren, of a roundish shape, about three leagues from the continent, and sixty-fix from Masua; but it does not exceed five miles in circuit.

Here is a very good haven on the south-west side facing the coast, secure from all winds, especially the eastern, made by two very long points, which extend north by west, and south by east, inclosing a spacious harbour. narrow at the mouth, where there lies a long, very flat island, with some sand-banks and shoals; so that no sea can get in. This port hath two entrances, both very near the points. The channel on the east side lies north by west. The depth is three fathoms in the shallowest place, and increases advancing in the port; it is four or five fathoms near the shore, and is rather muddy at the bottom.

With respect to customs, manners, dress, &c. the people who inhabit this island differ in nothing from those who reside in Masua, Dahlak, &c.

The island of Swaken is situated nineteen degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and thirty-seven degrees thirty minutes east longitude, and the port is deemed one of the best in the Red Sea. The entrance is by a narrow streight, which leads to a lake; in the midst of which is an island, and a town

town that covers every part of the island. De Castro, in his account of De Gama's voyage, informs us, that this town was once very important, and extremely opulent. At the time he was there, which was about the year 1540, he thus writes concerning it: "Swaken is at present one of the richest cities in the east, standing near the coast of Abyssinia. It equals, if not exceeds, the most eminent places in the goodness and security of its harbour, facility in lading and unlading of ships, traffic with remote countries, strength and advantageous situation of the town, &c. The harbour is sheltered by nature from all winds; and the waters are so smooth and still, that the tides are scarce perceptible. It is capable of containing two hundred large ships, besides a prodigious number of galleys. The road is from five to twelve fathoms water in depth, and hath a mud bottom, which is seen in all places not exceeding seven fathoms water. The ships come up close to the shore, quite round the city; and may be laden by laying a plank from them to the warehouses of the merchants."

The same writer says, that, with respect to commerce, he knew no city, except Lisbon, which could compare to it, for at that time it traded to both the peninsulas of India, the Arabian and Persian gulphs, Grand Cairo, Constantinople, Alexandria, Ethiopia, and other countries. For strength, the city seemed naturally well secured by the many shoals, islands, rocks, sand-banks, and intricate channels that lie from sixteen leagues about it, which renders the approach by sea very dangerous, and even terrible to navigators; yet the inhabitants had not taken the less care to defend it by art. "This city, he adds, thus situated, in the midst of a circular rock, stands in a flat island almost perfectly round, and level with the water, about a mile in compass. In this space there is not a foot of ground but what is taken up with houses; so that all the island is a city, and all the city an island." Such was the importance and opulence of Swaken between two and three centuries ago, at which period it was under the dominion of a Caffian prince.

After the time above-mentioned, this place has fallen into the hands of the Turks, and like most other places which these haughty, tyrannical, and indolent people have become possessed of, hath ever since dwindled away to little or nothing, lost its commerce and consequence, grown poor and thin of inhabitants, so that at present it makes but a very mean appearance. Such are the fatal effects of idleness, an arbitrary government, joined with superstition and ignorance!

Three other islands lie on the north-west side of Swaken, two of which are very small, but the third, next the channel, is about as large as the city.

Between this island, and the coast on the north side, runs a great and long channel, where a numerous fleet may ride in seven fathoms water with safety.

The decayed city of Swaken is now the seat of a Turkish governor, who acts subordinate to the basha of Grand Cair; and the modern inhabitants are principally Turks or Arabs. The houses now remaining here, and in the other little islands, are all erected with stone and mortar, and built in the European manner. The best buildings in Swaken are the baths; and the most pleasing amusement which both the Turks and Arabs take, is that of bathing. Indeed the sultry weather here seems to require frequent ablutions, both for health and pleasure; and Mahomet appears to have entertained the same opinion of the Turkish dominions in general, by his having made purifications, by frequent washings and bathings, a duty daily incumbent on every one of his followers, and a fundamental point of the Mahometan religion.

It may not be improper to give a particular account of these baths, and the manner in which the persons are treated by the attendants appointed to wait upon the persons who frequent them: we must first of all remark, that the men never bathe with the women; and indeed there is so much modesty observed, that any one would be reproved who should happen to see them through inadvertency, and, if he did it by design, would be bastinadoed. Some baths are for the use of the men in the morning, and for the women in the afternoon; others are frequented one day in the week by one sex, and the next by the other. People are very well attended in these baths for three or four aspers.

The first entrance is into a fine hall, in the middle of which the principal fountain appears. All round the hall is a small bench, about three feet high, covered with a mat. The men sit upon it to smok, and pull off their cloaths, which are folded up in a towel. The air in this first hall is so hot, that nothing can be born upon the

body, but an apron about the waist, to cover before and behind. In this condition a man passes into a small hall which is still warmer, and from thence into a larger, where the heat is more sensible. All these halls are generally closed above with small domes, which let in light at the top through a round glass, like those our gardeners put over their melons. In the last hall there are marble basins with two cocks, one of hot water, and the other of cold, which every one mixes according to his own fancy, and pours upon his body with little buckets of brags belonging to the place. The pavement of this chamber is heated by furnaces beneath, and every one walks there as long as he thinks proper.

When a man desires to be scoured, a servant of the bath causes him at once to lie along upon his back, and, setting his knees upon his belly, presses and squeezes him violently, making every bone crack. They handle after the same manner the joints of the back and the shoulder-blades. If he would be shaved, the servant shaves him, or gives him a razor to shave himself. When the person enters the great hall, another servant presses his flesh all over with his hands so dexterously, that having, as it were kneaded him, without doing him any harm, he forces out a surprising quantity of sweat. The little camblet bags they make use of here, are instead of the strigles of the ancients, and are much more convenient. To clean the skin the better, they pour a great deal of hot water upon the body, and also use perfumed soap. They wipe the skin with linen very clean, dry, and warm; and the ceremony concludes with the feet, which the same man washes very carefully when the person returns to the hall, in which they smok, drink coffee, and have collations; for after this exercise a man finds himself very hungry.

By cleansing the glands, the bath certainly facilitates perspiration, and consequently the circulation of the juices, which supply the blood. A man perceives himself very light when he has been well purified; but he must be accustomed to the bath from his youth, for otherwise the breast is very much affected by these warm rooms.

The women are very happy when they are permitted to go to the public baths; but most of them (especially such whose husbands are rich enough to build them baths at home) have not this liberty. In the public baths they entertain one another without any restraint, and pass their time more agreeably than in their own apartments. The men who have any complaisance for their wives do not refuse them these innocent diversions; for they would sometimes seek reasons for a divorce, were they under too much constraint.

The island of Barbora lies in ten degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and forty-seven degrees two minutes east longitude; it derives its appellation from a town of the same name adjacent to it.

The natives of this island are negroes; and the common people wear cotton garments, which go round their waists, and hang down to their feet, the rest of the body being bare; but those of a superior quality have the addition of a long cotton gown, which covers them all over, except their faces.

The soil of the island affording excellent pasture, the people great feeders of cattle; they are also very industrious traders, and carry on a considerable traffic, by exchanging cattle, gold, frankincense, ivory, pepper, &c. for clothes, amber, necklaces, glass beads, raisins, dates, and other articles.

The inhabitants of Barbora exchange away either the produce of their own island, or what they procure from the neighbouring continent; for their labour is looking after cattle, as many of them officiate in the capacity of shepherds and graziers to the people of the kingdom of Adel, on the opposite continent.

Those who here tend the herds and flocks, are some of the happiest and most inoffensive people in the universe: indeed their felicity hath been so much the admiration and envy of others, that many capital men from Adel, and the adjacent kingdoms, and several rich Arabian merchants, have thought proper to retire hither from the adulation of courts, the dangers of war, the hazards of commercial voyages, and the painful bustle of trade, in order to taste in rural retirement, those delicious pleasures which honours and riches could not procure them.

The Turkish, Moorish, Arabian, Egyptian, &c. merchants, bring their commodities hither. Their traffic, however, is much decayed since the Europeans have formed such powerful connections in the East Indies, as the merchants above alluded to naturally repair to the best

mart, and seek the most profitable mode of vending their commodities, or trafficking with the natives.

These people are admired by all who have traded in those seas, for their universal philanthropy; and are peculiar for their singular benevolence to each other, and their very humane treatment to domestic and other animals. Happy would it be for mankind in general, if such virtues were more general; and that they who esteem themselves politer people, and boast of a more refined education, would copy the shining parts of all characters, how different soever from them in political or religious sentiments, or remote with respect to the locality of situation.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Island of ZOCATRA, ZOCOTORA, or SOCOTORA, its Situation, Boundaries, Climate, Productions; also an Account of the Inhabitants, their Disposition, Dress, Customs, Laws, Punishments, &c.

THIS island was first discovered about the year 1560, by one Ferdinand Pereira, a Portuguese. It is situated about seventy-five miles to the north-east of cape Gaurdufuy, in twelve degrees ten minutes north latitude. It is bounded on the south, by the continent of Arabia, from whence it is distant about fifty miles; and, on the north-east, by the kingdom of Melinda. It is of very considerable extent, being not less than eighty miles in length, sixty in breadth, and one hundred and fifty in circumference. There are several good harbours on the shore; besides which, there are two excellent bays, where the shipping ride with the greatest safety. The ground in the bays is sand, and in some places stony; but not so as to injure the cables.

The tides here are contrary to those of India: for when the moon appeareth on the horizon, it is high-tide, which thence begins to ebb; and by the time it cometh to the meridian, it begins to flow again in the same order as it sets at Goa; and it is full sea when set.

The weather here is exceeding sultry, owing to the short continuance of rains, which seldom last more than two or three weeks in the season. This defect in the climate is, however, happily remedied by heavy dews, occasioned by the lofty mountains, whose tops are generally covered with snow, so high as to condense the clouds, and afterwards dissolve them in a kind of thick mist or fog.

In some parts of the island are rivers, which rise from springs, and are never affected even by the driest seasons; but other parts of it, except in the rainy season, are totally destitute of water.

The inhabitants of this island, which is exceeding populous, are under the government of a prince or sultan, who was once subject to the shariffs of Arabia; but is now tributary to the Turks.

This country abounds in cattle and fruit, with which, and some other commodities, the natives trade to Goa, where they are better received than the Arabs, who are not permitted to enter that town without passports. The other productions of the island are, aloes, frankincense, dragon's blood, rice, dates, ambergris, and coral. We shall take an opportunity of describing the two last articles, as they have not been hitherto particularly noticed.

The former of these, namely ambergris, is generally of an ash-colour, or grey, and is a fat, solid substance, like suet, but light. It is variegated like marble, and is sometimes speckled with white; it springs from the bowels of the earth, is condensed in the sea, and is found floating on the water, though sometimes it is met with on the sea-shore, where it has been thrown by the waves. It is sometimes black as well as grey; but the grey is accounted the best.

There is little room to doubt that this is a sort of bitumen, which proceeds from the earth near the bottom of the sea; for it sometimes contains stones, shells, the bones of animals, and the bills and claws of birds, as well as honey-combs, from which the honey has not been all lost. Hence it appears, that this bitumen must have been first in a liquid state; lumps of 200lb. weight have sometimes been found.

When put into the fire, ambergris will melt into a sort of gold-coloured resin, which will kindle and burn when held to a candle. It will not dissolve entirely in spirits of wine, but leaves a black, pitchy matter behind it. The solution, after some time, will leave a white cloudy

sediment, which will coagulate by little and little, and grow thick, especially by the incorporation of the finer parts of the spirits of wine. When this is dry, it becomes a shining sort of earth, not much unlike spermaceti. It consists of oily greyish particles, which are very fine and volatile, with others that are thicker, saline, and bituminous.

Ambergris is of great use among perfumers; and is recommended by physicians for raising languishing spirits, and increasing their motion; whence it is given for disorders of the brain and heart, as well as in fainting fits. The dose is from one grain to eight in wine or a poached egg, and, in substance, a pill of the size of a small pea.

Coral consists of various kinds; some of which resemble small trees without leaves; others are in the form of a net, sometimes with large meshes, and sometimes with small. The inside of the branches seems to be of the nature of horn, for it has the same smell when put into the fire; but the bark is of a stony nature, and contains a great deal of salt.

Coral, properly so called, is of a stony nature, and is placed in the animal kingdom, because it produces sea-insects. Some of these are red, and others white, and others of various colours; however, the red, of the colour of vermillion, is best, and is by some said to be of the male kind, and that which is palish of the female. The white coral is the next in value; and next to that, the black; but some will not allow those of the other colours to be corals, though they are found in the same places. It is always covered with bark, and is stony, solid, and very hard, even in the water; though the branches are a little flexible, but soon grow hard in the air. The bark of coral is a mixture of tartar and a fluid of a glutinous nature; and though it is a little rough, it takes a very fine polish.

Some persons take the black coral to be a sea-plant of a different nature. Red coral is not so much esteemed in Europe as it is in Asia, and particularly in Arabia. It is used for making several sorts of toys, such as spoons, heads of canes, knife-handles, sword-hilts, and beads; and, when tipped with silver, it serves as a plaything for children, and is designed to rub the gums therewith, to facilitate the cutting their teeth.

There are found on the young branches of coral, several small eminences, in the form of stars, and full of a milky fluid when they are just taken out of the water. Many learned men have thought sea-plants to be nothing but petrifications, consisting of plates of salt and layers of tartar, placed one upon another; and as coral always grows with its head downwards, in caverns of rocks in the sea, the situation has caused them to suspect that they were nothing else but petrifications, likethose found in the roofs of certain caves in the rocks. But since the discovery of the flowers of coral, and some other marine productions, it is not at all doubted but they have a regular organization; and if their seeds have not been perceived, it is because their smallness renders them indiscernible to the eye.

The generation of these plants have been thought by some to be not owing to these seeds; because as they always hang with their heads downwards, they would fall off to the bottom of the caverns, and not place themselves on the top; but this difficulty may be removed, by supposing they are lighter than the sea-water, and that the milk which surrounds them is of so thick a nature, that it may help to assist them in swimming. Hence indeed it may happen that many of these may rise to the top of the water, and there perish; but then likewise others may ascend to the top of the caverns, and there fix themselves, and then they will grow like coral, from which they proceed. Hence we may conclude, from the regularity of these productions, the organization of their parts, the great number of small pores in their bark to receive their bitumen, and other sea-juices, the eminences regularly hollowed in the form of stars, which serves for the rows of flowers in the same shape, the vessels full of a milky fluid which is found between the bark and the body of the plant, to make it grow thicker by little and little, and the perpetual uniformity of the same circumstances; from all these particulars we have reason to believe, that the bottom of the sea is covered with plants that have characteristics different from these we are acquainted with.

The faculty make choice of the red coral only for medicinal uses; and many authors have ascribed great virtues thereto, which are in a great measure imaginary; however, it cannot be denied that it is a good absorbent, and is therefore proper to restrain the organism of the blood;

and to blunt the acrimony of the bile and other humours in various sorts of fluxes, as well as for pains in the bowels of children. From a scruple to a drachm is the dose, according to the nature of the case.

These articles are purchased by the inhabitants of Goa, who export them from thence to many parts of the Indies, and to most of the kingdoms of Europe: whence arise great profits to the traders, and advantage to the inhabitants, who are luxuriously supplied with all the necessaries of life, in exchange for their commodities. Formerly they had a more immediate intercourse with Europe, by means of the East India ships, which frequently stopped here, when disappointed of their passage, either by being too early or too late for the monsoons; but this port has been almost entirely neglected since the stated periods of those winds are so well ascertained.

In this island are great numbers of Arabs, besides the natives: the former of whom call the latter by the name of Bedouins, or stupid brutes. These last are divided into two sorts, namely, the natives of the coast, who intermarry with the Arabs, and are called half Bedouins, and those of the interior parts, who rigorously adhere to their own customs, and reckon it a heinous crime to mingle blood with foreigners. The last are the true Bedouins, or original inhabitants of the country. They are much fairer than the Indians, and are in general tall and very proportionably made; but in their dispositions they are deceitful, indolent, and great cowards, suffering themselves to be enslaved in a manner by a handful of Arabs, and attending to nothing besides husbandry and pasture, both which are chiefly carried on by the women. Their food consists of milk, butter, rice, dates, and the flesh of their cattle; water is their common drink.

With respect to the other inhabitants of the island, though they seem to make use of all the benefits of their situation, yet they want at the same time the personal advantages of the Bedouins; for they are of a low stature, disagreeable complexion, lean habit, and have hideous features; but they are very hardy, and are prodigious strong and active. They feed on fish, flesh, milk, butter, and vegetables: their usual dish, is a composition of all these boiled together; and they generally eat bread, dates, or rice with it.

There are different kinds of dress worn in this island, according to the several parts of it. The native Bedouins go almost naked, having nothing more than a small piece of cloth fastened round the waist, and a cap made of goats skin. The women go bare-headed, and have a short gown, or cloak, with a shift made of goats hair. But the most general dress of these islanders consists of a long cloak, which reaches from the waist to the ancles; it hangs down in a train behind, and is not unbecoming, though extremely inconvenient, on account of the heat of the climate: they gather it up, and fasten it round the waist with a girdle, when they are at work.

These people are entirely ignorant of arts, inasmuch that, were it not for the Arabs, they would be destitute of almost every convenience of life. They are, if possible, still more ignorant of the liberal arts; and so little desirous are they even to acquire the knowledge of reading and writing, that they think they have sufficient learning, if they are able to reckon their cattle by making notches in a piece of wood. Their chief ingenuity is displayed in the camblin manufacture, which is a beautiful stuff, made with the hair of goats, and other animals. But they have several very strange and uncommon customs, which we shall here particularize.

The Zocotrans practise polygamy, and divorce their wives at pleasure, either for a certain time, or for ever. They may even be the father of children, without being obliged to maintain either them or the mother, provided the latter, during her pregnancy, consents that the father shall give away the child, when it sees the light. On these occasions, the father kindles a fire before the door of his hut or cave, and then makes proclamation, that the will give away the infant of which his wife is on the point of being delivered. After this, he fixes on some particular person for its adopted father, to whom the infant is carried immediately after its birth. Here it meets with all that tenderness, kindness, and those caresses which are denied it by the unnatural father, is given to a nurse, and ordered to be fed with goats milk. These children are called the sons or daughters of smook; and it frequently happens that a good-natured man, who is himself incapable of getting one, shall have the honour of rearing a dozen children, upon whom he bestows all the affection of a real parent. This is certainly one of the most ex-

traordinary and unnatural customs to be met with in history, as it does not seem to be founded on the principle of religion, policy, or inclination, but upon mere caprice; for it is common with a father, who exposes his own, to adopt the children of others, and requite the good offices due to the former, by his kindness to the latter.

Another custom among them, no less strange and singular than the above, is, that they generally bury their sick before they have breathed their last, making no distinction between a dying, and a dead person. They esteem it a duty to put the patient as soon as possible out of pain; and make this their request to their friends, when they are on the sick bed, which, in all acute disorders, may be called the death bed. When the father of a family finds himself thus circumstanced, and has no reason to believe that his dissolution is approaching, he assembles his children around him, whether natural or adopted, his parents, wives, servants, and all his acquaintances, whom he strongly exhorts to a compliance with the following articles of his last will: "Never to admit any alteration in the doctrine or customs of their ancestors; never to intermarry with so reigners; never to permit an affront done to them or their predecessors, or a beast stole from either of them, to go unpunished; and lastly, never to suffer a friend to lie in pain, when they can relieve him by death."

They commonly perform the last request of the dying man by means of a white liquor of a strong poisonous quality, which oozes from a tree peculiar to this island. Hence it is that legal murders are more common here than in any other country in the world; for, besides the inhuman custom last-mentioned, the other requests of dying men produce numberless quarrels, and, by taking revenge of the injuries done to their ancestors, entail family feuds and bloodshed upon their posterity for a long series of years.

Justice is administered in Zocotora by the chief magistrates, who are next in rank to the sultan: they are called hodamos, and sit at certain times to judge and determine in all causes political and ecclesiastical, civil or criminal. There is no appeal from this tribunal, nor can the successors reverse any decree passed before their coming into office, which they hold only for one year, and during this time they preserve the most distinguished power and dignity.

The punishment for murder here is death, which is inflicted either but cutting off the offender's head, or empaling him alive. In cases of theft, if the robber escapes with his booty, and takes sanctuary in a temple, he is protected; but if he is caught by the person robbed before he reaches the temple, he is then delivered up to justice, and the punishment of the crime is the loss of his right-hand. Other trifling matters are punished by fines; of which, one half is paid to the sultan, and the magistrates share the rest equally among them.

As to their religion, they are pagans, and practise the most superstitious maxims: however, they adhere strictly to circumcision, and are so strict in their adherence to this rite, that they cut off the fingers of those whose parents have neglected to perform the operation upon them, or have themselves refused it. The Arabs amongst them are Mahometans.

Lent, or at least a time of fasting similar to it, is kept by them: they begin to observe this at the new moon in March, abstaining, for the space of sixty days, from milk, butter, flesh, and fish; and living wholly upon dates, rice, honey, and vegetables; procuring the honey from Arabia, in exchange for aloes and frankincense. They have altars and crosses; but as they are entirely ignorant of every tenet of the Christian church, nothing certain can be deduced from ceremonies and usages handed down by tradition, of which they give no manner of account, nor produce a single reason for them.

That they are gross idolaters, is sufficiently evident from their worshipping the moon, which they esteem as the creative principles of all things; a notion not consistent with Atheism, much less with Christianity and the doctrines of redemption. At times of great drought they assemble in a solemn manner, and offer up their petitions to the moon. They make a public sacrifice to that luminary towards the beginning of Lent, in honour of whom they also offer up number of goats. Whenever the moon rises or sets, they enter into their temples, and practise several other religious ceremonies, which denote them to be the zealous votaries of this inconstant deity.

A celebrated French writer tells us, that "at the rising and setting of the moon, or more probably at the new and full moon, they make solemn processions round their

temples or moquamos, as also round their burial-places, striking together two pieces of odoriferous wood about a yard long, which each man holds in his hands. This ceremony they perform three times in the day, and as often at night; after which, putting a large cauldron, suspended by three chains, over a great fire, they dip into it splinters of wood, with which they light their altars and the porch of the temple. They then put up their prayers to the moon, that she will enlighten them with her countenance, shed upon them her benign influence, and never permit foreigners to intermix with them. They make also an annual procession round the temples, preceded by a cross; and the whole ceremony ends upon the priest's clapping his hands together, as a signal that the moon is tired with their worship. Others say, that the signal consists in cutting off the fingers of him who holds the cross; in recompence for which, he has a stick given, on which are certain marks, prohibiting all persons, of whatever rank or condition, to molest or hurt him ever after; on the contrary, they are to aid and assist him with all their power, in whatever manner he may require their help; they are doomed to suffer corporal punishment, and the loss of an arm, unless they respect and honour him as a martyr to religion."

Sir Thomas Roe confirmed these particulars relative to the religion of the Zocotorans. This great man, during his stay on this island, took great pains to preserve, in his journal, a minute account of the manners and customs of the natives; and tells us, that he found the inhabitants to consist of four different sorts of men, viz. of Arabs, whom the king of Caxem had sent to keep the island in subjection to him; of slaves to the prince, who are employed in preparing aloes, and other offices of drudgery; of Bedouins, the primitive inhabitants of the island, who are banished to the mountains, till they submitted to the yoke, and agreed to breed up their children in the Mahometan religion; and, lastly of savages with long hair, who, excluding themselves from all society, live naked in the woods.

In order to render our description of this island and its inhabitants as complete as possible, we shall here subjoin several remarkable particulars concerning them, given by Mr. Mandesloe, whose observations appear to be very accurate: "they live, says he, chiefly upon fish, roots, and fruit. They have no wild fowl, and very few tame; yet they are not without cows, camels, asses, and sheep; they have also goats, whose hair upon the thighs is curled in the manner in which satyrs are painted. Their arms are swords with large hilts, without a guard; poniards, with long blades, which they constantly wear stuck in their girdle; and fire-arms, which they manage with some dexterity, but cannot keep in order, or free from rust; so that in a few weeks they are rendered useless. They are remarkably expert in the use of bucklers, which they wield in such a manner as to protect every part of the body, and are wounded only when their shoulders are pierced, or cut down by blows.

"Though they live in an island, and trade with the continent, they are ignorant of navigation, and have no other vessels than flat-bottomed fishing-boats, with which, however, they weather great storms. The torrents that flow down from the mountains like rivers, either in rainy weather, or when the snow on the tops of the mountains is melted by the sun, sufficiently supplies all foreign shipping with water. Though they are Mahometans, yet they worship the sun and moon. Christians or infidels, their religion is a strange mixture of truth and error. But, from the solemn processions and sacrifices made to the luminaries above-mentioned, one would imagine that idolatry and paganism chiefly prevailed.

"The people of this island use their women, who are chiefly Arabians, with great tenderness; but are so jealous, that they never permit them to be seen by a stranger. As they are crafty and deceitful themselves, so they are suspicious of the same insincerity in others: they adulterate their commodities, and expect that those they deal with have done the same.

"The island affords some indifferent oranges, tobacco, citrons, and cocoa-nuts; but they seldom come to maturity, on account of the strong, dry, and sandy soil. Their chief commodity is aloes; and they have also dragon's blood, and keep great numbers of civet-cats; so that this commodity may be purchased at Zocotora for three or four crowns per ounce; but they find means to adulterate even the civet; so that unhappily there is no method of being secured from fraud." To conclude, the natural craft and subtlety of the Zocotorans, together with the

deep penetration and cunning of these and most other Arabs, who inhabit the islands in and near the Red sea, are unreceivable, and serve at once to display the profound sagacity, as well as perfidy of these people.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Islands of St. HELENA, BISAGOES, BISSAO, and GORÉE, their Situation, Extent, Productions, Inhabitants, Animals, &c.

ST. HELENA is situate in the Atlantic ocean, in six degrees odd minutes west longitude, and sixteen degrees south latitude, almost in the mid-way between Africa and America, one thousand miles distant from either continent. It was so named by the Portuguese, who discovered it on St. Helen's day. This island is twenty-one miles in circumference, and high land, for it may be discerned at sea at above twenty leagues distance: it consists of one vast rock, steep on every side, and looks like a castle in the middle of the ocean, whose natural walls are of that height, that there is no scaling them, nor the small valley, called Chapel-valley, in a bay on the east side of it, which is defended by a battery of forty or fifty great guns, planted even with the water; and the waves dashing perpetually on the shore, it is at all times difficult landing even here. There is also one little creek besides, where two or three men may land at a time; but this is now defended by a battery of five or six guns, and rendered inaccessible. There is no anchorage any where about the island, but at Chapel-valley bay: and, as the wind always sets from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again.

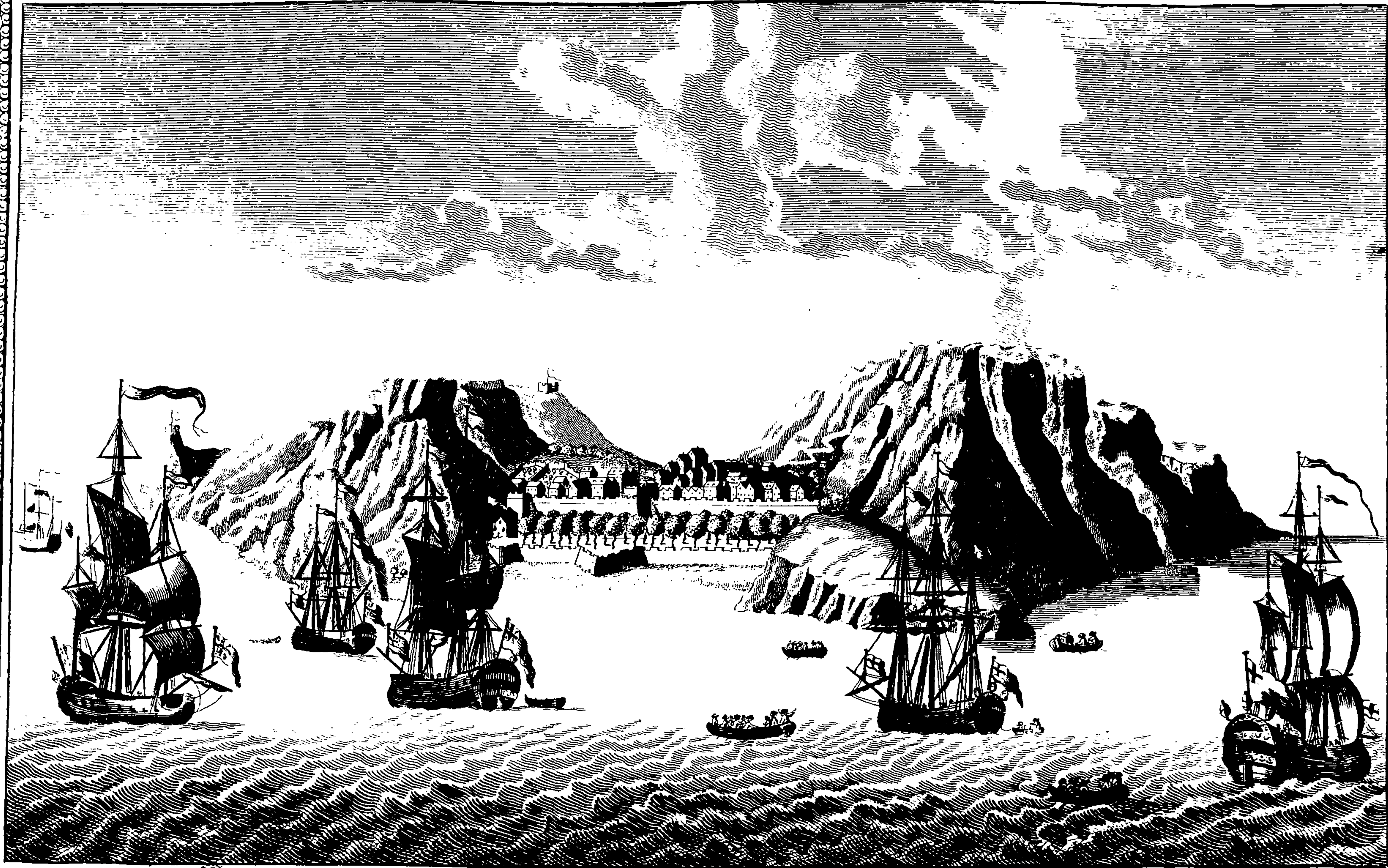
A little beyond the landing-place, in Chapel-valley, is a fort where the governor resides with the garrison; and in the same valley there is a pretty town, consisting of forty or fifty houses, built after the English way, whither the people of the island resort when any shipping appears, as well to assist in the defence of the island, if they happen to be enemies, as to entertain the seamen, if they are friends: for the governor has always sentinels, on the highest part of the island to the windward, who give notice of the approach of all shipping, and guns are thereupon fired, that every man may resort to his post. It is impossible for any ship to come in the night-time, but what has been discovered the day before, and preparations made for her reception, if an enemy.

Notwithstanding the island on every side appears to be a barren rock, yet on the top it is covered with a fine layer of earth a foot or a foot and a half deep, which produces all manner of grain, grass, fruits, herbs, roots, and garden-stuff: and the country, after we have ascended the rock, is prettily diversified with rising hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and kitchen gardens, among which the houses of the natives are interspersed; and in the open fields are herds of cattle always grazing, some of which are fatted to supply the shipping that touch here, and the rest furnish their dairies with milk, butter, and cheese; they abound also in hogs, goats, turkeys, and all manner of poultry, and their seas are well stored with fish.

The greatest misfortune is, that amidst all this affluence of other things, they have neither bread nor wine of their own growth; for though the soil is exceedingly proper for wheat, yet the rats that harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed, eat up all the seed before the grain is well out of the ground: and though their vines flourish, and afford them grapes enough, yet the latitude is too hot for making wine. As we have observed already, there is no country, except Peru, within the torrid zone, where good wine is produced; neither cold nor very hot countries agree with this liquor. All the wine they spend, therefore, they have from the Canaries, the Madeiras, or the Cape, which is brought to them in European shipping, as well as their flour and malt; and their very houses are some of them brought ready framed from England, there being no timber on the island, trees not taking deep root here, for the rock that lies so near the surface. However they have underwood enough for their necessary uses in this warm climate.

Besides grapes, they have plantains, bananas, figs, lemons, and such other fruits as hot countries usually produce, and they make shift to raise kidney-beans, and some other kinds of pulse in their gardens; though they cannot preserve their grain from the rats: and to supply the want of bread, they eat potatoes and yams.

There were upon the island, in the year 1701, about



*View of the Town and Island of ST. HELENA, in the Atlantic Ocean;
belonging to the English East India Company.*

two hundred families, most of them English, or descended from English parents, though there were some French refugees amongst them, brought thither to cultivate their vines, and teach them to make wine; but in this, it seems, the heat of the climate prevented their succeeding, as has been observed already. Every family has its house and plantation on the higher part of the island, where they look after their cattle, their hogs, goats, and poultry, fruits, and kitchen-gardens: they scarce ever come down to the town in Chapel-valley, unless it be once a week to church, or when the shipping arrives, when most of the houses in the valley are converted into punch-houses, or lodgings for their guests, to whom they sell their cattle, poultry, fruits, or garden-stuff. But the inhabitants are not suffered to purchase any merchandize of the ships that touch here. Whatever they want of foreign growth or manufacture, they are obliged to buy at the company's warehouse, where they may furnish themselves, twice every month, with brandy, European or Cape wines, Batavia arrack, malt, beer, sugar, tea, coffee, China and Japan ware, linen, calicoes, chints, muslins, ribbands, woollen cloth and stuffs, and all manner of cloathing; for which they are allowed six months credit. The coin chiefly current here is Spanish dollars or English money.

In all other places near the tropics, the children and descendants of white people have not the least red in their cheeks; but the natives of this island are remarkable for their ruddy complexions, and robust constitutions. Their being in general healthful is ascribed to several causes; among which are these: they live on the top of a mountain always open to the sea-breezes that constantly blow here: they are usually employed in the most healthful exercises of gardening and husbandry, and their island is frequently refreshed with moderate cooling showers, and there are no fens or salt-marshes about it to annoy them. They are used also to climb the steep hill between the town in Chapel-valley and their plantation, which is so steep, that they are forced to have a ladder in the middle of it, from thence called Ladder-hill; and this cannot be avoided without going three or four miles about; so that they seldom want air or exercise, the great preservers of health.

Mr. Salmon, who was in this island, says, "As to the genius and temper of the natives, they seemed to me the honestest, the most inoffensive and hospitable people we had met with of English extraction, having scarce any tincture of avarice or ambition. We asked some of them, if they had no curiosity to see the rest of the world, of which they had heard so many fine things; and how they could confine themselves to a spot of earth, scarce seven leagues in circumference, and separated from the rest of mankind? To which they answered: They enjoyed all the necessaries of life in great plenty; they were neither parched with excessive heat, or pinched with cold; they lived in perfect security, in no danger of enemies, of robbers, wild beasts, or rigorous seasons, and were happy in a continued state of health: that as there were no rich men amongst them (scarce any planter being worth more than a thousand dollars) so there were no poor in the island; no man hardly worth less than four hundred dollars, and consequently not obliged to undergo more labour than was necessary to keep him in health."

The Portuguese, who discovered this island in 1502, stored it with hogs, goats, and poultry, and used to touch at it for water and fresh provisions in their return from India; but we do not find they ever planted a colony here; or if they did, having deserted it afterwards, the English East India company took possession of the island in the year 1600, and held it till 1673, without interruption, when the Dutch took it by surprize. However, the English, commanded by captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road at the same time. The Hollanders had fortified the landing-place, and planted batteries of great guns there to prevent a descent; but the English being acquainted with a small creek where only two men could go a-breast, climbed up to the top of the rocks in the night-time, and, appearing next morning at the backs of the Dutch, they threw down their arms, and surrendered the island without striking a stroke. But, as we have observed above, this creek has been since fortified, and a battery of great guns planted at the entrance of it; so that there is now no place where an enemy can make a descent with any probability of success.

The affairs of the company here are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and storehouse-keeper, who

have standing salaries allowed them by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and eminent passengers are welcome. The natives sometimes call the result of their consultations severe impositions; and though relief may perhaps be had from the company in England, yet a late writer observes, that the unavoidable delays in returning a redress at that distance, sometimes put the addressers under a hardship: he also thinks, that were not the situation of this island very serviceable to our homeward bound East India ships, the constant trouble and expence would induce the company to abandon the island; for though it is furnished with the conveniences of life, yet the merchants find no profitable commodities there. The masters of the plantations keep a great many blacks, who, upon severe treatment, hide themselves for a quarter of a year together, keeping among the rocks by day, and roving at night for provisions: but they are generally discovered and taken.

Near the mouth of the river Sierra Leona are situated the islands of Bulam, La Gallina, Casnabac, Cazegut, Calacha, and some others: these are called the Bisagoe islands. The island of Bulam lies at the mouth of Rio Grande, on the great river, which, by means of this island, divides itself into two branches. Bulam is between eight and ten leagues long from east to west, and between twenty-five and thirty in circumference. The whole coast is bordered with woods, beyond which the country is fertile, rich, and beautiful, covered with rice, Indian corn, millet, roots, and fruit, which are cultivated by the negroes of the several islands, who come hither in seed-time and harvest, and afterwards return home.

The ground rises almost imperceptibly for two leagues from the sea-shore, to the foot of some hills, which serve as a base to higher mountains which stand in the centre of the island; yet these mountains are neither steep nor craggy, being covered with fine and lofty trees. Through the many vallies between these hills and mountains run several considerable rivulets, which the negroes assert to run constantly, even in the dry season of the year. While this island presents to mariners a most delightful prospect from the sea, it excites at the same time their admiration at seeing so beautiful a spot uninhabited.

Both sides of the Rio Grande, or great river, are very well peopled, and covered with lofty trees, of several sorts, which the Portuguese cut to build barks. This river lies to the south-east of the isle of Bulam, is about two leagues broad, and, having run some leagues from east to west, makes a great elbow, or winding, and turns to the north-east, till a little higher it is divided into two arms by the island Bisagoe.

In this island there is one particular tree, which they call Michery, and might be employed to great advantage in ship-building, as it grows to a great height, is easily worked, and is at the same time hard, solid, and proof against worms. It is full of an oily moisture, excessively bitter, which probably keeps the worms from infesting it. Trials have been made of that wood in several parts of Europe, Africa, and America, and it has always been found of equal goodness.

The most easterly of all these islands is Formosa, which is now desert.

The island of Gallina, or Hen island, was thus named from the great number of hens the Portuguese found here. This and the island of Casnabac are very populous and fruitful, and have abundance of good water.

Cazegut, one of the most considerable of these islands, is about six leagues long, and two broad; its soil is very good, producing orange and palm-trees, besides millet, rice, and all kinds of pulse. This island, with those of Carache, Cunabac, and La Gallina, are the only ones where the Europeans may trade with some security. They trade, however, at some of the other islands, but they must be extremely cautious; for if they venture on shore, they will be liable to be robbed and murdered.

Each of the Bisagoe islands, except Bulam, is governed by a chief, who assumes the authority of a king. All these monarchs are perfectly independent, and frequently at war with each other. They have canoes that carry from twenty-five to forty men, with their provisions and arms, which are sabres, bows and arrows.

The negroes of these islands are tall, strong, and healthy, though it is said they live only on fish, nuts, and palm-oil; and sell their rice, millet, and other produce of the earth, to the Europeans for the ornaments they wear. They are in general idolaters, and are said to be of a savage and cruel disposition, not only to strangers, but to

one another; for authors say, that they frequently quarrel about trifles, and will stab or drown themselves, if disappointed of their revenge.

The island of Bissao is near forty leagues in circumference, affords a very agreeable prospect from the sea, rising on every side by a gentle ascent to an eminence in the center of the island: yet there are a number of hills inferior in height to that in the middle, separated by beautiful and fertile vallies, divided by small rivulets, which at the same time augment the richness and elegance of the scene.

Here are little groves of palms, and the rest of the ground is cultivated, and produces a harvest equal to the most sanguine wishes of the inhabitants. Wheat and maiz spring up here to a great height, so as to resemble a field covered with reeds of bamboos. They have likewise another grain that is a species of maiz, which they make into cakes. They have also oranges, bananas, mangoes, and every kind of fruit to be found in the warm climates, and perhaps in greater perfection than in any other place.

The cattle of Bissao are of an uncommon size, and seem to keep pace with the most extravagant growth of the corn: milk and wine are in the greatest abundance; but the island affords neither swine nor horses, the natives forbidding the importation of the former, and the increase of the latter is in general prevented either by the climate or soil.

Notwithstanding the perpetual state of war in which the natives are engaged with the neighbouring islands, and the kingdoms on the continent, yet Bissao is not less populous than fertile; but though the inhabitants are numerous, they live in cottages dispersed up and down the country without the least vestige of a town, except where the French and Portuguese have established themselves. Even the palace of the king consists only of a number of irregular huts, that have a communication with each other. There are about six hundred persons in the Portuguese town, all of whom speak the Portuguese, and pretend that they are descended from them, though they have a fixed and inveterate dislike to that nation, and their complexions are jet-black.

In this island, the dress of the women consists of a cotton girdle, which falls down before, and bracelets of brass, coral and copper; but the virgins go intirely naked, and those of high quality have their bodies marked or painted with a variety of hideous pictures, of snakes and other reptiles, that give their skins some resemblance to flowered fatten; even the eldest daughter of the king is distinguished from the other ladies only by the elegance of these paintings, and the bracelets she is adorned with.

The cloathing of the men of all ranks is only a skin fixed to their girdle, and drawn up between their legs. One of their most extraordinary ornaments is a large iron ring, with a flat round surface on the outside instead of a stone, upon which they ring changes with a bit of iron, in such a manner to converse with the same facility with their castanets, as by means of the most polished language. There is, however, something in this that appears highly improbable, for it is difficult to conceive how ideas can be conveyed by striking together two pieces of iron: it is nevertheless acknowledged, that they have another language that is vocal, and used upon all common occasions, besides this artificial one.

These people are all idolaters; but their notions of religion appear so confused, that it is difficult to enter perfectly into their system. Their chief idol is a small image which they call Shina; but we cannot ascertain the sentiments they form of this object of their worship; besides this, it is said, that every man creates a divinity according to his own fancy. Trees are worshipped as the residence of some deity or spirit superior to man, and are therefore held sacred by them.

The government of the Bissaons is altogether arbitrary, the people in general being subject to the will of their prince; who, though he has nothing to lose, yet may be said to possess every thing within his dominions, as his power extends over his people and their effects. We shall give the following instance of the policy of one of their princes: two slaves, who had been sold to an European merchant, made their escape, and were taken by the king's troops. Equity seemed to require that they should be restored to their masters; but the king gave a different verdict, saying, they had obtained their freedom by having escaped, and, by being retaken by his troops, were again reduced to slavery; so that now the king had an intire property in them.

When the sovereign of this island dies, all the women and slaves, for whom he had a peculiar regard, are sacrificed and buried near their master, that they may attend him in the next world. It is likewise customary for the nobility to have some of their living friends buried with them. A traveller to this place mentions an instance where a father desired that his three sons, of whom he was very fond, might be buried with him at his death.

These people are warlike, and fight with extreme fury, though with little discipline. As treaties of peace are unknown among these nations, so they have no kind of intercourse except in war, and hence no scheme of politics is carried on among them. As the Europeans find it their interest to ferment their quarrels (war being their interest, by augmenting the number of their slaves) consequently they are far from offering their mediation.

If at any time the monarch of this island is determined to carry the war into the neighbouring territories, he orders an instrument, called the bonbalon, to be sounded; this being the general signal to arms, all in the government's pay assemble hereupon at certain head quarters, that are always fixed: where they find the royal fleet, which usually consists of thirty canoes, each carrying thirty men, with their arms and provisions, under the command of an admiral, for the king seldom puts himself at the head of his fleet and armies.

Before the fleet sails, a number of sacrifices are offered to the gods, and the flesh of the victims divided between the court, the priests and the soldiers. In this consultation of the gods, the king always receives a favourable answer; for the deities being of wood, it is easy for the priest to direct what they should say; and hence the army always begins a campaign with the fullest assurance of success.

They make a descent with all possible privacy, surround the enemy's towns and villages, carry off the inhabitants with every thing of value, and then embark before the troops have time to assemble in order to oppose them. One half of the booty belongs to the king, and the remainder is divided among those who obtained it. The slaves are sold to the Europeans, except where any of them happen to be of quality or fortune; in which case he is restored to his friends, on condition of their sending, in exchange, an equal number of slaves, equal in value.

When the invaders return from these expeditions, they assume an air of great importance, and go round the country, shewing their wounds, and relating the wonders they have done and seen, with a long train of prisoners behind them, whom they oblige to sing the praises of the heroes; for which they make them presents of pieces of cloth and other things, which they exchange, for palm-wine. But when these incursions are attended with less honour and profit than was expected, the prisoners are in danger of being sacrificed, especially if the Bissaons have lost an officer of distinction.

The warriors who fall upon these occasions receive public honours by dances performed to the music of tabors. The women express their grief in a manner extremely affecting, pulling their hair, and beating their breast; after which they are served with palm-wine, in order to support their spirits. When thus recruited they begin their mourning with redoubled vigour, and shed tears most plentifully, till the corpse is laid in the grave; when their countenances suddenly brighten, and they resume their former cheerfulness.

The king never goes abroad without being surrounded by some thousands of his nobility, women and guards, all of them richly dressed and armed, as far as the skins of beasts, and the brightness of their seymetars can make them so. The palace is about a league distant from the point of Bissao.

There was formerly in this island a fort belonging to the Portuguese, which they mounted with eight pieces of cannon, in order to awe the natives, and prevent their trading with any other foreigner but themselves; the Bissaons, however, soon threw off this restraint, and now maintain the full liberty of receiving all strangers into their ports, where they enjoy perfect security under the king's protection; but before they are suffered to land, his majesty consults the gods by sacrifices, whether admitting those strangers be for the interest of himself and subjects, and the general good of the island.

The island of Gorée is situated in fourteen degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in seventeen degrees twenty minutes west longitude from London, is called by the natives Barfaguiche; but the Dutch, who were the first Europeans that took possession of it, gave it the name of

Goree, from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is only about eight hundred and forty yards in length, and two hundred and forty-eight in breadth; its whole circumference, including a point at the eastern end of the island, being, according to a late mensuration, about two English miles. It stands to the south-west of Cape Verd, within cannon-shot of the shore, and consists of a long narrow piece of land, and a small but steep mountain. Notwithstanding its smallness, its situation renders it agreeable: for on the north part of the island the inhabitants have a view of Cape Verd and the neighbouring promontories.

Though Goree is situated in the torrid zone, the people breathe a temperate air all the year round, owing to its being continually refreshed by alternate breezes from the land and sea. A multitude of surrounding rocks renders it almost inaccessible, except at two particular bays. Upon the summit of a rocky hill is St. Michael's Fort, which the late director M. de St. Jean embellished with several new buildings, and added works which, in the opinion of the French, rendered the island impregnable: the land is also defended by several other forts and batteries, in different parts of it.

Formerly the soil was composed of only a red sand, without either grass, trees, water, or scarce any thing besides reeds; but, by the diligence of the above gentleman, several springs of fresh water were discovered in the island; gardens were planted with excellent fruit-trees; pulse and all kinds of vegetables were made to grow in great abundance; and, in short, from a small, barren, and disagreeable island, it was rendered one of the pleasantest and most important settlements in these parts.

Goree was ceded to the Dutch in the year 1617, by the king of Cape Verd, when they immediately built a fort on a rock to the north-west, to which they gave the name of Nassau Fort; but finding that it could not command the harbour, they erected a fortification, called Orange Fort, near the shore. The Dutch kept the island till admiral Holmes taking it in 1663, placed an English garrison in it. Two years after it was retaken by De Ruyter, and the governor and garrison obliged to surrender prisoners of war. The Dutch then augmented the fortifications, and the island enjoyed perfect tranquillity, till in 1677 a French squadron, commanded by the count d'Estrees, attacked the place, and obliged the Dutch governor to surrender at discretion. D'Estrees found that the lower fort mounted forty pieces of heavy cannon, and that the works were kept in excellent repair; but having no instructions to garrison them, he dismantled this, and entirely demolished Nassau Fort. Soon after M. Du Cassee arriving at Goree with a forty-gun ship, solemnly took possession of the island, and concluded a treaty with the king and negroes, on the same conditions the Dutch had enjoyed the island; and as this measure, which he had voluntarily taken, was approved by the court of France at his return, he was sent back the following year in quality of governor; and soon after, this conquest was secured to the French company by the treaty of Nimeguin; whereupon the French instantly repaired and added new works to both the forts, calling the lower fort Vermandois, and the higher St. Michael. Several unsuccessful attempts were afterwards made by the Dutch to recover a place of such importance to trade, but all of them proving abortive, the French continued in the possession of this island till the year 1759, when a squadron was fitted out under the command of commodore Keppel, consisting of the Torbay, Fougueux, Nassau, Prince Edward, and the Dunkirk, several frigates, two bomb-ketches, and some transports, with more than seven hundred regular troops on board, commanded by colonel Worge.

On the arrival of the English fleet before the island, it was resolved to make the attack on the west side, not because it was the weakest, but from its being the weather side; and therefore should their cables be cut by a chain shot, or any other accident, the ships might, without danger, put to sea, and beating to windward, renew the action; but if they had anchored on the east side, such an accident might have caused the ships to be driven on shore. However, on the 11th of November, at about nine in the morning, the Prince Edward and the Fire Drake bomb, bore down towards the island, and in ten minutes after the action was begun, by throwing a shell from a bomb. The enemy instantly returned the fire from the forts and batteries; and at the second shot carried away the Prince Edward's ensign staff, and set fire to an arms-chest close by it, which, blowing up, killed one of the marines. Encouraged by this successful beginning,

they levelled their ordnance at the Prince Edward, and began a terrible fire; and few in the squadron saw this vessel, in the midst of this shower of bombs and bullets, without sending up their most fervent wishes for her safety.

When the commodore observed that the Fire Drake overcharged her mortar, and that all her shells fell beyond the island to the south, he sent his boat on board the Furnace bomb, with advice, that as they saw the error of the other in overcharging the mortar, they should avoid that extreme, and that as the enemy seemed bent upon sinking the Prince Edward and the Fire Drake, he desired they would begin their fire, and endeavour as much as possible to draw part of the enemy's attention from their suffering friends; and these orders were with alacrity instantly obeyed.

The fire from all the ships was soon discharged with prodigious fury on the enemy, and that of the Torbay alone, in which was the commodore, seemed sufficient to have razed the very foundations of the island. The commodore had brought up with such judgment a-breast of the angles of both the west point battery and St. Francis fort, that the enemy could not bring a gun from thence to bear upon him. Five guns only could have touched him with advantage; two from St. Peter's, and three from a small lunette on the hill before St. Michael's; both which were so warmly attacked by the other ships, that they were soon deserted. Indeed the fire from the Torbay was so terrible, so near, and so well aimed, that none but madmen could have stood it. The ship seemed in a continual blaze, and that part of the island was darkened by a very great cloud of smoke.

Several hundred negroes lined the opposite shore, to behold the engagement, and were astonished at seeing ships bear down with the utmost intrepidity against stone walls, and receiving the fire from the batteries with intrepid courage. At length the governor was prevailed on to strike his flag; but Mr. Keppel, in the midst of the noise and smoke, was some time before he perceived the silence of the enemy, and at last only suspected they had struck, from the silence of the rest of the squadron. He slackened his fire to look around him, when not a Frenchman was to be seen but those who were flying towards the castle on the hill. Upon this he sent a lieutenant, attended by his secretary, to wait upon the governor; but before they had left the boat, they were met by M. St. Jean on the beach, who asked on what terms the honourable Mr. Keppel proposed he should surrender? Surprised at the question, they asked, If his flag was not struck? He answered, No, he only meant it as a signal for a parley: and being told that the commodore would hear of no terms but his own, replied that he was sufficiently prepared, and knew how to defend himself; to which the others returned, that the commodore had brought up in a situation where no gun could hurt him, and did not care if they stood out for a month. Hereupon the engagement was renewed; but M. St. Jean, soon finding it impossible to keep his soldiers to their quarters, surrendered himself and garrison prisoners at discretion, and the British flag was hoisted on St. Michael's fortrefs. This island, at present, however, belongs to the French, being afterwards ceded to them by the treaty of peace in 1763.

The Moors and Arabs bring to this place and Senegal great quantities of gum, which are sent from hence to Europe and other parts of the world; they bring it hither on camels, bullocks, horses, &c. The gum is measured in a cubical measure, called by the Moors, quantor, and every quintal pays a certain duty. Proper commissaries put it into sacks, and then allow it to be carried to the settlements belonging to the company. The inhabitants have no water but what they catch in cisterns, reservoirs, &c. and wood is extremely scarce.

Mahometanism is the religion of the natives of this place and Senegal, and they practise circumcision with great rigour. They perform this operation at the age of fifteen, that the youth may have strength sufficient to undergo it, and be tolerably well instructed in the principles of his faith. The ceremony is never performed in hot weather; the last quarter of the moon is always chosen, through a notion that the operation is then less painful, and the wound cured with more ease. It is done in a beautiful meadow, surrounded by gardens, upon a few boards elevated a little from the ground. The victims are led thither by relations succeeding each other according to their ranks, when the priest performs the operation; after which, the youth retires with a chearful countenance, either real or affected.

S E C T. X.

Containing a Description of CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS, their Situation, Soil, Climate, Productions, Inhabitants, Animals, &c.

THE Cape de Verd islands are situated in 14 degrees 10 min. north latitude, and 16 degrees 30 min. west longitude. They were so called from a cape of the same name opposite to them, and were discovered by Anthony Noel, a Genoese, in the service of Portugal, in the year 1640, and are about twenty in number; but some of them are only barren uninhabited rocks. The cape took its name from the perpetual verdure with which it is covered. The Portuguese give them the name of Les Ilhas de Verdes, either from the verdure of the cape, or else from an herb called fargasso, which is green, and floats on the water all round them. His Portuguese majesty appoints a viceroy to govern them, who constantly resides in the island of St. Jago. The Dutch call them the Salt Islands, from the great quantities of that commodity produced in several of them.

The principal of these islands are the following; namely, 1. May, or Mayo; 2. San Jago, or Saint James's; 3. Sal, or Salt; 4. Buena, or Bona Vista, or Good Sight; 5. St. Philip's, otherwise called Fuego, or the island of Fire; 6. St. John, or San Juan; 7. St. Nicholas; 8. St. Vincent; 9. St. Anthony; 10. St. Lucia; 11. Brava.

The soil of these islands is very stony and barren; the climate exceeding hot, and in some of them very unwholesome; however, the principal part of them are fertile, and produce various sorts of grain and fruits, particularly rice, maize, or Indian wheat, bananas, lemons, citrons, oranges, pomegranates, cocoa-nuts, and figs. They have also calavanes, a sort of pulse like French beans, and great quantities of pumpkins, on which the inhabitants chiefly subsist.

These islands produce also two other fruits of a remarkable nature, viz. the custard apple, and the papah. The former of these is as large as a pomegranate, and nearly of the same colour. The outside husk, shell, or rind, is in substance and thickness between the shell of a pomegranate and the peel of a Seville orange, softer than the former, yet more brittle than the latter. The coat or rind is also remarkable for being covered with small regular knobs or risings; and the inside of the fruit is full of a white soft pulp, which in its form, colour, and taste, greatly resembles a custard, from whence it received its name, which was probably first given it by the Europeans. It has in the middle a few small black stones, but no core, for the whole of it is intire pulp. The tree that bears this fruit is about the size of a quince-tree, and has long slender branches that spread a considerable way from the trunk. Only some of the branches bear fruit, for though these trees are large, yet in general such trees do not produce above twenty or thirty apples. The fruit grows at the extremity of these branches, upon a stalk about nine or ten inches long.

The other fruit, called the papah, is about the size of a musk melon, and resembles it in shape and colour both within and without; only in the middle, instead of flat kernels, which the melons have, these have a quantity of small blackish seeds, about the size of pepper-corns, the taste of which is much the same as that spice. The tree on which this fruit grows, is about ten or twelve feet high; the trunk is thickest at the bottom, from whence it gradually decreases to the top, where it is very thin and taper. It has not any small branches, but only large leaves, that grow immediately on the stalks from the body. The leaves are of a roundish form, and jagged about the edges, having their stalks or stumps longer or smaller, as they grow nearer or farther from the top: they begin to spring out of the body of the tree at about six or seven feet high from the ground, the trunk being below that entirely bare, and the leaves grow thick all the way from thence to the top, where they are very close and broad. The fruit grow only among the leaves, and most plentiful where the leaves are thickest; so that towards the top of the tree the papahs spring forth from it in clusters. It is, however, to be observed, that where they grow so thick, they are but small, being no bigger than ordinary turnips; whereas those nearer the middle of the trunk, where the leaves are not so thick, grow to the first-mentioned size.

Poultry of various sorts abound in the Cape de Verd islands, particularly curlews, Guiney hens, and flamingoes,

the latter of which are very numerous. The flamingo is a large bird, much like a heron in shape, but bigger, and of a reddish colour; they go in flocks, but are so shy, that it is very difficult to catch them: they build their nests in shallow ponds, where there is much mud, which they scrape together, making little hillocks, like small islands, that appear about a foot and a half above the surface of the water. They make the foundations of these hillocks broad, bringing them up taper to the top, where they leave a small hollow pit to lay their eggs in; they never lay more than two eggs, and seldom less. The young ones cannot fly till they are almost full grown, but they run with surprising swiftness: their tongues are broad and long, having a large lump of fat at the root, which is delicious in its taste, and so greatly admired, that a dish of them will produce a very considerable sum of money. Their flesh is lean, and of a dingy colour, but it neither tastes fishy, nor any ways unpleasant.

Here are also several other sorts of fowls, as pigeons and turtle doves; miniotas, a sort of land fowl, as big as crows, of a grey colour, and the flesh well tasted; crufias, another sort of grey-coloured fowl, almost as large as the former; these are only seen in the night, and their flesh is said to be exceeding salutary to people in a decline, by whom they are used. They have likewise great plenty of partridges, quails, and other small birds, and rabbits in prodigious numbers.

In these islands are many wild animals, particularly lions, tigers, and camels, the latter of which are remarkably large. There are also great numbers of monkeys, baboons, and civet-cats, and various kinds of reptiles. The tame animals are horses, asses, sheep, mules, cows, goats, and hogs; and here the European ships bound for the East Indies, usually stop to take in fresh water and provisions, with which they are always plentifully supplied.

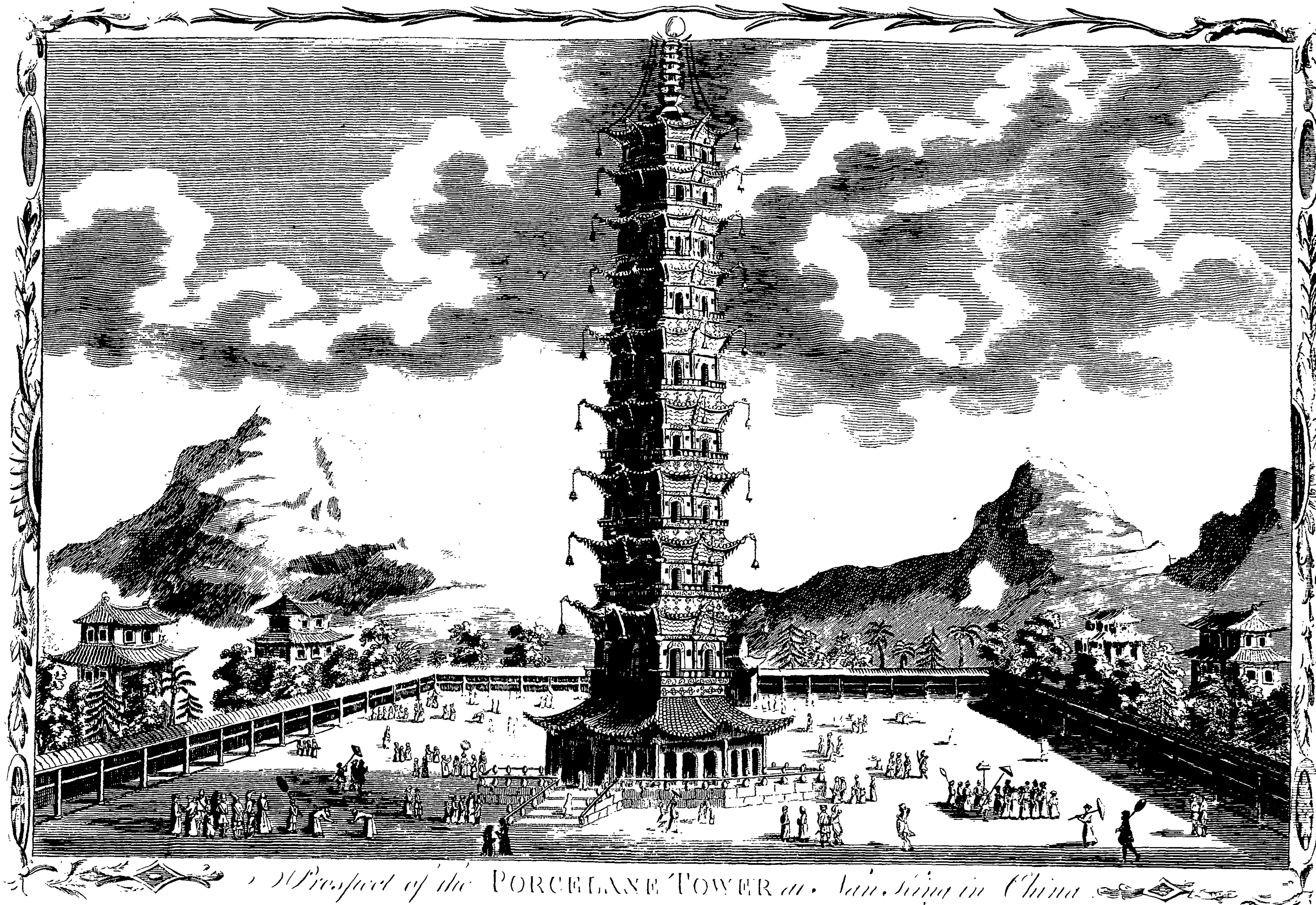
Fish of various sorts abound in the sea near these islands, particularly dolphins, bonettas, mullets, snappers, silver fish, &c. and here is such plenty of turtle, that several foreign ships come yearly to catch them. In the wet season the turtles go ashore to lay their eggs in the sand, which they leave to be hatched by the heat of the sun. The flesh of the turtles, well cured, is a great supply to the American plantations, as cod-fish is to Europe. The inhabitants go out by night and catch the turtles, by turning them on their backs with poles; for they are so large that they cannot do it with their hands.

In these islands are many European families, all of whom profess the Roman Catholic religion. The natives are all negroes, and much like their African neighbours, from whom they are supposed to be descended; though, as they are subject to the Portuguese, their own religion and language prevail among them. Both men and women are stout, and well limbed, and they are in general of a civil and quiet disposition. Their dress (particularly in the island of St. John) is very trifling, consisting only of a piece of cotton cloth wound round the waist. The women sometimes throw it over the head, and the men across the shoulders. Neither sex wear shoes or stockings, except on certain festivals. The men are particularly fond of wearing breeches, if they can get them, and are very happy if they have but a waistband and flap before.

We shall now proceed to a partial description of the several islands in the order above set down.

The island of Mayo, or May, obtained its name from its being discovered on the first of that month. It is situated in 15 degrees 5 minutes north latitude, near three hundred miles from Cape Verd, and is about seventeen miles in circumference. The soil is in general very barren, and water scarce: however they have plenty of cows, goats, and asses; and also some corn, yams, potatoes, and plantains. What trees they have are situated on the sides of the hills, and they have some water-melons and figs. The sea likewise abounds with wild fowl, fish, and turtle. There grows on this island, as well as on most of the others, a kind of vegetable stone, extremely porous, of a greyish colour, which shoots up in stems, and forms something like the head of a cauliflower.

There is a bay on the west side of the island, and a sand-bank that runs two or three miles along the shore, within which there is a large salina, or salt-pond, encompassed by the sand-bank, and the hills beyond it. The whole salt-pond is about two miles in length, and half a mile wide; but the greater part of it is generally dry. The north end, which is always supplied with water, produces salt from November till May, those months being the dry season of the year. The waters that yield this salt work out of the sea through a hole in the sand-bank, and



Prospect of the PORCELAIN TOWER at Nan. King in China.

and the quantity that flows into it is in proportion to the height of the tides; in the common course it is very gentle, but when the spring tides arise, it is supplied in abundance. If there is any salt in the pond, when the flush of water comes in, it soon dissolves; but in two or three days after it begins to congeal, and so continues till a fresh supply of water from the sea comes in again.

A considerable trade for salt is carried on here by the English, and the armed ships destined to secure the African commerce, afford the vessels thus engaged their protection. The inhabitants of the island are principally employed in this business during the season; they rake it together, and wheel it out of the pond in barrows, from whence they convey it to the sea-side on the backs of asses, which animals are very numerous here. The pond is not above half a mile from the landing-place; so that they go backwards and forwards many times in the day; but they restrain themselves to a certain number, which they seldom exceed.

There are several sorts of fowl, particularly flamingoes, curlews, and Guiney hens. Their chief cattle are cows, goats, and hogs, which are reckoned the best in all the Cape de Verd islands. Besides the fruits above-mentioned, they have calavanes and pumpkins, which are the common food of the inhabitants.

The inhabitants in this island live in three small towns, the principal of which is called Pimont, and contains two churches, with as many priests; the other is called St. John, and has one church; and the third, which has a church also, is called Lagos. The houses are very mean, small, and low; they are built with the wood of the fig-tree (that being the only one fit for the purpose that grows on the island) and the rafters are made of a sort of wild cane which grows here.

The Portuguese governor of St. Jago grants the patent to the negro governor of this island, whose situation is tolerably advantageous, as every commander that lades salt here is obliged to compliment him with a present. He spends most of his time with the English in the salting season, which is his harvest, and a very busy time with all the natives. These people have not any vessels of their own, nor do any Portuguese ships come hither, so that the English are the chief on whom they depend for trade; and though they are subjects of Portugal, they have a particular esteem for the English nation. Asses are also a great commodity of trade here; and are so plentiful, that several European ships from Barbadoes and other plantations, come annually to freight with them to carry thither.

The island of St. Jago, or St. James's Island, is situated about four leagues to the westward of Mayo, between the fifteenth and sixteenth degrees of north latitude, and in the twenty-third of west longitude. This island is the most fruitful and best inhabited of all the Cape de Verd islands, notwithstanding it is very mountainous, and has a great deal of barren land in it.

The principal town is called after the name of the island, and is situated in fifteen degrees north latitude. It stands against the sides of two mountains, between which there is a deep valley two hundred yards wide, that runs within a small space of the sea. In that part of the valley next the sea is a straggling street, with houses on each side, and a rivulet of water in the bottom, which empties itself into a fine cove or sandy bay, where the sea is generally very smooth, so that ships ride there with great safety. A small fort stands near the landing place from this bay, where a guard is constantly kept, and near it is a battery mounted with a few small cannon.

The town of St. John contains about three hundred houses, all built of rough stone, and it has one small church and a convent. The inhabitants of the town are in general very poor, having but little trade. Their chief manufacture is striped cotton cloth, which the Portuguese ships purchase of them, in their way to Brasil, and supply them with several European commodities in return.

There is a tolerably large town on the east side of the island, called Praya, where there is a good port, which is seldom without ships, especially in peaceable times. Most of the European ships bound to the East Indies touch at this port to take in water and provisions, but they seldom stop here on their return to Europe. The town of Praya does not contain any remarkable building, except a fort, situated on the top of a hill, which commands the harbour. When the European ships are here, the country people bring down their commodities to sell to the seamen and passengers; these articles generally consist of bullocks, hogs, goats, fowls, eggs, plantains, and cocoa-nuts,

which they exchange for shirts, drawers, handkerchiefs, hats, waistcoats, breeches, and linen of any kind.

The complexion of the natives of this town and St. Jago inclines to black, or is at least of a mixed colour, except some few of the better sort that reside in the latter, among whom are the governor, the bishop, and some of the padres (fathers) or priests. The people of St. Jago town, as they live under the governor's eye, are pretty orderly, though generally very poor, having little trade; but those about Praya are naturally of a thievish disposition, so that strangers who deal with them must be very careful, for if they see an opportunity, they will steal their goods, and run away.

The island of Sal, or Salt, is the windwardmost of all the Cape de Verd islands, and is situated in the seventeenth degree of north latitude, and five degrees eighteen minutes west longitude from the Cape. It received this name from the great quantity of salt naturally produced here from salt water, that from time to time overflows part of the land, which is mostly low, having only five hills, and stretches from north to south about eight or nine leagues, but it does not exceed one league and a half in breadth.

There are only a few people in this island, and these live in wretched huts near the sea-side, and are chiefly employed in gathering salt for those ships that occasionally call here for that article. The best account of this barren island is given us by captain Roberts, who landed here, and relates the following story, which he says he was told by one of the blacks that resided in it. "About the year 1705, not long before I went ashore, the island was intirely deserted for want of rain by all its inhabitants except one old man, who resolved to die on it, which he did the same year. The drought had been so extreme for some time, that most of the cows and goats died for want of sustenance, but rain following, they increased apace, till about three years after they were again reduced by a remarkable event. A French ship coming to fish for turtle, was obliged, by stress of weather, or from some other cause, to leave behind her thirty blacks, which she had brought from St. Antonio to carry on the fishing. These people, finding nothing else, fed mostly on wild goats, till they had destroyed them all but two, one male and the other female, these were then on the island, and kept generally upon one mountain. A short time after an English ship (bound for the island of St. Mayo) perceiving the smoke of several fires, sent their boat on shore, and thinking they might be some ship's company wrecked on the island, put in there; when they understood the situation of the people, they commiserated their case, took them all in, and landed them on the island from whence they were brought."

The island of Buena Vista, or Bona Vista, thus named from its being the first of the Cape de Verd islands discovered by the Portuguese, is situated in the sixteenth degree of north latitude, two hundred miles west of the coast of Africa, and is twenty miles long, and twelve broad, mostly consisting of low land, with some sandy hills, and rocky mountains. It produces great quantities of indigo, and more cotton than all the other Cape de Verd islands; yet there is not one of them where there are fewer cotton cloths to be sold: for the natives will not even gather the cotton before a ship arrives to buy it; nor will the women spin till they want it. They have, in general, the same animals as in the other islands, with plenty of turtle, and many sorts of fish.

When the English land there to take in a lading of salt, they hire men and asses to bring it down to the sea; for which they pay them in biscuits, flour, and old cloaths. This island had also formerly a pretty good trade for horses and asses, which are the best of all that are upon these islands. The people are very fond of silk, with which they work the bosoms of their shirts, shifts, caps, women's waistcoats, &c.

The people of this island prefer the English dress to their own; for most of them have suits of cloaths bought of the English, and have learned to make cotton cloth to imitate the European fashion. The women have one, two, or three cotton cloths wrapped about them like petticoats, tied on with a girdle about the hips, and sometimes without a girdle. Their shifts are made like a man's shirt, but so short, as scarcely to reach to the girdle; the collar, neck, and waistbands, of the young people of some rank, are wrought in figures with silk in various colours in needlework; but the old and the poor have theirs worked with blue cotton thread. Over their shifts they wear a waistcoat, with sleeves to button at the arms, not above four inches deep in the back part, but long enough before to tie with strings under their breasts. Over all they

they have a cotton cloth in the manner of a mantle; those of the married women are generally blue, and the darker the colour the richer it is reckoned; but the maidens, and gay young wives, and widows, wear blue and white, some spotted and some figured. They, however, rather choose, if they can get them, linen handkerchiefs wrought on the edges, and sometimes only on the corners, with red, green, and blue silk; the first being the colour they most admire. They wear neither shoes nor stockings, except in holidays; and, indeed, at other times the women have generally only a small cotton cloth wrapped round their waist, and the men a ragged pair of breeches; to which, if there be but a waistband, and a piece hanging to it before to hide what modesty teaches them to conceal, they think it sufficient. The people of Bona Vista are fond of the English, and most of them can speak a little of their language.

The island of St. Philip, called also Fuego, or the Isle of Fire, received this latter name from a very large mountain, which frequently emits great quantities of fire and sulphur. It is situated in fifteen degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and six degrees fifty-four minutes west from the Cape; is the highest of all the Cape de Verd islands, and appears at a distance like one continued mountain. On the west side of it there is a road for shipping, near a small castle situated at the foot of a mountain, but the harbour is not safe, on account of the violent beating of the waves. The wind blows very strong round this island, and the shore being on a slant, the water is very deep, so that, except very near the castle, no ground is to be found within the lines.

Water is very scarce in this island, there not being a single running brook throughout it; notwithstanding which it is tolerably fertile, and produces great quantities of pumpions, water-melons, festoons, and maize, but no bananas or plantains, and scarce any fruit trees except wild figs; however, in some of their gardens, they have guava-trees, oranges, lemons, and limes. They have likewise some good vineyards, but they make no more wine than just what they use themselves.

Most of the inhabitants of this island are negroes, there being an hundred blacks to one white; they are all Roman Catholics, though some of them introduce many pagan superstitions into that religion. They breed great numbers of mules, which they sell to other nations, and make cotton cloths for their own use.

The Portuguese, on their first peopling this island, brought with them negro-slaves, and a stock of cows, horses, asses, and hogs; but the king himself furnished the place with goats, which ran wild in the mountains. There are many of the latter animals here at this time, and the profits of their skins is reserved to the crown of Portugal. An officer, called captain of the mountains, has the management of this revenue, and no person dares, without his licence, kill any one of them.

St. John's is situated in fifteen degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude, and seven degrees two minutes west of Cape Verd, and is very high and rocky. It has more salt-petre than any of these islands: this is found in several caves, covering the sides like a hoar-frost, and in some hollow rocks, like icicles as thick as a man's thumb. This island abounds with pumpions, bananas, water-melons, and other fruit, and also with fowls, goats, asses, hogs, &c.

There are plenty of fish in the seas about St. John's, and most of the fish here have remarkably sharp teeth; and they generally use crabs and insects for baits. Fishing is the principal employment of the natives; hence they miss no opportunities of wrecks, or, when ships touch here, to procure all the bits of iron they can.

Captain Roberts tells us, that it is his opinion, that this island abounds with copper, and perhaps with finer metals, for which he gives his reasons: he observes, that there are several acid fountains, of a vitriolic quality, which he tried by putting a clean knife into them, and in about half a minute it would be all covered with copper, nearly of a gold colour, very thick, and, when dry, it might be scraped off in scales, or powder. Some of these waters had a much sharper power than others, and their acidity diminished in proportion to their distance from the fountain-head. Many are found of a dark blue, black, and reddish colour, some of which exceed iron, and are nearly equal to lead in weight.

In this island, the salt is made by the heat of the sun, which shining on the water in the holes of the rocks, is thereby turned, and sometimes lies two feet thick. The natives usually go and get a quantity of salt early in the

morning, fish the greatest part of the day, dry, split, and salt their fish in the evening, and, having heaped them up, let them lie in the salt all night. On the ensuing morning they spread them out to dry in the sun, and they are fit to use when wanted.

The baleas, a sort of whale or grampus, is very common near this island; and some affirm, that ambergris is the sperm of this creature. A great quantity of ambergris was formerly found about this island, but it is less plentiful at present. Some years before captain Roberts was here, Juan Carneira, a Portuguese, who was banished from Lisbon for some crime, having procured a little ship or shallop, traded among these islands: meeting at length with a piece of ambergris of an uncommon bigness, he not only procured his liberty, and leave to return before the term of his exile was expired, but had sufficient left, after defraying all charges, to put himself in a comfortable way of living; and a rock near to which he found the ambergris, is called by his name to this day.

The natives of this island do not amount to above two hundred souls, and are quite black. They are the most ignorant and superstitious of any of the inhabitants of these islands. But in their disposition they are simple and harmless, humble, charitable, humane, and friendly; pay a particular respect to their equals, reverence their elders, are submissive to their superiors, and dutiful to their parents.

People wear in common only a slip of cotton fastened to a string before, which passing between the thighs, is tied to the same string behind; but when full dressed they also wear a piece of cotton cloth, (spun and wove by themselves) which the men hang over their shoulders, and wrap round their waists, while the women put it over their heads, and then wrap it about their bodies; and on both of them it extends to the calf of the leg, or lower.

They use in fishing, long canes for rods, cotton lines, and bent nails for hooks. As to their hunting, the governor having the sole privilege of killing the wild goats, none dare hunt without his consent. This was a law made by the Portuguese when they peopled these islands from the coast of Africa, in order to prevent the entire loss of the breed.

When a general hunt is appointed by the governor, all the inhabitants are assembled, and the dogs, which are between a beagle and a grey-hound, are called. At night, or when the governor thinks proper to put an end to the sport, they all meet together, and he parts the goat's flesh between them as he pleases, sending what he thinks proper to his own house, with all the skins; and after he comes home, he sends pieces to those who are old, or were not out a hunting; and the skins he distributes amongst them as he thinks their necessities require, reserving the remainder of them for the lord of the soil. This is one of the principal privileges enjoyed by the governor; who is also the only magistrate, and decides the little differences that sometimes happen among the people.

Upon their not submitting to this decision, he confines them till they do, in an open place walled round like a pound: but, instead of a gate, they generally lay only a stick across the entrance, and those innocent people will stay there without attempting to escape, except when overcome by passion, and then they rush out in a rage; but these are soon caught again, tied hand and foot, and a sentinel set to watch them, till they agree with their antagonist, ask the governor's pardon for breaking out of his prison, and have remained there as long as he thinks they have deserved. Nay, if one kills another, which hardly happens in an age, the governor can only confine him till he has pacified the relations of the deceased, by the mediation of his friends, who are bound for the criminal's appearance, in case a judge should be ever sent from Portugal to execute justice: but imprisonment is here reckoned such a scandal, that Mr. Roberts says, it is as much dreaded as Tyburn is by criminals here.

About forty-five miles from the island of Salt is St. Nicholas island, the north-west point of which is in seventeen degrees ten minutes north latitude, and six degrees fifty-two minutes west longitude from Cape de Verd. It is the largest of all the Cape de Verd islands, except St. Jago. The land is high, and rises like a sugar-loaf, but the summit of the most elevated part is flat. The coast of this island is entirely clear from rocks and shoals. The bay of Paraghisi is very safe, but the other roads are insecure till the trade winds are settled.

There is a valley in this island which has a fine spring of water in it, and many persons employ themselves in supplying different parts with that useful article, with

which they load asses, and carry it a considerable way at a cheap rate. Water may likewise be obtained in almost any part of the island, by digging a well.

The town of St. Nicholas is the chief place in the island; it is close built and populous, but all the houses, and even the church, are covered with thatch. Captain Avery, the celebrated pirate, having once received some offence from the inhabitants; burnt this town; but it was afterwards rebuilt, much in the same manner, and to the same extent as before.

The people here are nearly black, with frizzled hair. They speak the Portuguese language tolerably well, but are thievish and blood thirsty. The women here are more ingenious, and better housewives than in any other of the Cape de Verd islands. Most families have horses, hogs, and poultry; and many of the people of St. Nicholas understand the art of boat-building, in which the inhabitants of the other islands are deficient. They likewise make good cloths, and even cloaths, being tolerable tailors, manufacture cotton quilts, knit cotton stockings, make good shoes, and tan leather.

The people are strong Roman Catholics, but their dispositions are so obstinate, that their priests find it very difficult to rule them. This island abounds in oranges, lemons, plantains, bananas, pompions, musk, water-melons, sugar-canes, vines, gum-dragon, festroons, maize, &c.

The island of St. Vincent is under the eighteenth degree of north latitude, two leagues to the west of St. Lucia, and about forty-three leagues distant from the Isle of Salt, west and by north. It is five leagues in length. On the north-west of it there is a bay a league and a half broad at the entrance, surrounded with high mountains, and stretching to the middle of the island. This bay is sheltered from the westerly and north-westerly winds, by the high mountains of the isle St. Vincent; so that this is the safest harbour of any in all these islands; and yet it is difficult of access, because of the furious winds that blow with the utmost impetuosity from the mountains along the coast.

There are several other small bays on the south-side of the island, where ships may anchor, and thither the Portuguese generally go to load hides. The south-east side of this island is a sandy shore, but there is not a drop of water on the hills, nor even in any of the deep valleys, except one, in which fresh water is seen to spout out of the ground on digging a little.

The island of St. Anthony is the most northward of all the Cape de Verd islands, and lies under the eighteenth degree of north latitude, seven miles from St. Vincent, with a channel between them, which runs from south-west to north-east. Here are two high mountains on this island, one of which is nearly as high as the pike of Teneriff, and seems always enveloped in clouds. The inhabitants are about five hundred in number; and on the north-west side of the island there is a little village, consisting of about twenty houses or cottages, and inhabited by near fifty families of negroes and white people, who are all wretchedly poor, and speak the Portuguese language. On the north side of the island there is a road for shipping, and a collection of water in a plain lying between high mountains, the water running from all sides in rainy season; but in the dry season the people are greatly distressed for water. The principal people here are a governor, a captain, a priest, and a schoolmaster, all of whom take much upon themselves, so that the people have some jingling verses concerning them, which imply, that the governor's staff, the beads of the priest, the schoolmaster's rod, and the captain's sword, give them a licence to feast on the natives, who serve as slaves to support their luxury and grandeur.

The island of St. Lucia lies in latitude seventeen degrees eighteen minutes north. It is high land, full of hills, and is about eight or nine leagues long. On the south-east end of it are two small isles, very near each other. On the east-south-east side is the harbour, where the shore is of white sand: here lies a small island, round which there is a very good bottom for anchoring; and ships may ride at anchor in a very good road, in twenty fathom water over-against the island of St. Vincent.

The island of Brava, or the Savage, or the Desert Island, is about four leagues to the south-west of Fuego. There are two or three small islands to the north of it. The best harbour lies on the south-east side of the island, where ships may anchor next to the shore in fifteen fathom water. There is an hermitage and an hamlet just above the harbour. On the west side of the island there is a very commodious road for such ships as want to get water.

S E C T. XI.

Of the Canary Islands, particularly those of LANCEROTA, and FUERTEVENTURA; their Situation, Climate, Soil, Productions, Animals, &c.

THE Canary Islands, or, as they were antiently called, the Fortunato Islands, lie in the Atlantic ocean, near the continent of Africa, between the twenty-seventh degree thirty minutes and the twenty-ninth degree north latitude, and between the twelfth and seventeenth degrees fifty minutes west longitude from London. A judicious traveller observes, that on sailing four hundred and fifty miles to the south west, from the mouth of the straits of Gibraltar, along by the coast of Fez and Morocco, on the Atlantic ocean, we arrive at the south-west extremity of Mount Atlas; then leaving the land, and sailing into the ocean, directly west one hundred and sixty miles, we come to the island of Lancerota, the best of the Canary Islands in that course; the rest of these islands lie all to the west and south of Lancerota. The principal of the Canaries are seven in number; these are Lancerota, Fuerteventura, Canaria, Teneriff, Gomera, Hierro, or Ferro, and Palma, all of which lie from east to west, in the order in which they are here placed, and the last is about sixty-five leagues distant from the first. There are six more round Lancerota, namely, Graciosa, Rocca, Alegranza, Santa Clara, Inferno, and Lobos; but as these are not much better than rocks, navigators or geographers have not taken much notice of them.

John de Betancourt, a Frenchman, in the service of the king of Castile, discovered these islands in the year 1417, since which time they have been subject to the crown of Spain: he also subdued Fuerteventura and Lancerota, as others after him did the rest, from that time to the year 1496. In the days of Ferdinand, king of Castile, and Alphonso V. of Portugal, each of them claimed a right to the other's dominions, and assumed each other's titles, so that at length there ensued a bloody war between the Spaniards and the Portuguese, till both sides being spent, a peace was concluded in 1479, at Alcobazas, on the 4th of September, by which they reciprocally renounced their pretensions; and it was therein stipulated, that the Canary Islands should entirely belong to the crown of Castile, and the commerce and navigation of Guiney to that of Portugal exclusively.

The island of Lancerota is about fifteen miles long, and ten broad, and the center of it is in twenty nine-degrees eight minutes north latitude. It is very high, and may be discovered at a great distance; it appears, on approaching it, to be black, rocky, and barren.

Porto de Naos, on the south-east side of the island, is the principal harbour, and any vessel that does not draw above eighteen feet, may enter at high water, and be secure from all winds and weather; yet, in sailing along the coasts, the ships appear as if at anchor in an open road; for the harbour is formed by a ridge of rocks, which at a small distance cannot be perceived, as most of them lie under water; these breaking off the swell of the sea, the inside is perfectly smooth. This being the only convenient place among the Canary Islands for cleaning and repairing large vessels, it is much frequented for that purpose by the ships that trade to these islands. At the west end of the harbour is a square castle built of stone, and mounted with some cannon, but is of no great strength, as ships of war may approach it within musquet shot. There are some magazines at this port, in which corn is deposited for exportation, but here is no town or village.

A spacious harbour, called El Rio, is at the north end of Lancerota: this serves as a channel for dividing the island of Lancerota from the uninhabited island of Graciosa; and ships of any burthen may pass through it. That part of Lancerota which faces this harbour, is an exceeding high and steep cliff, from the bottom of which the shore is about two musket shot distant. The ground here is low, and in it is a salt-work, which is a square piece of land levelled, and divided by shallow trenches, about two inches deep; they let the sea-water into them, which is soon turned into salt, by the heat of the sun, and the nature of the soil. There is no other way of access into Lancerota, from the shore of this harbour, than by climbing up a narrow, steep, and intricate path, that leads to the top of the cliff, and it is scarce possible for a stranger to ascend it without a guide; for he would be in great danger of falling to the bottom should he wander from the path, which it would be difficult to regain.

On this island there are only two towns; one called Cayas, or Rubicon, which is situated about two leagues to the north-west of Porto de Naos, and may be termed the capital of the island, since it was formerly a bishop's see; but it contains only about two hundred houses, most of which have a mean appearance, an old castle mounted with some guns, a church, and a convent of friars.

The town of Haria, the next in size to Cayas, stands about two leagues within land, to the southward of the narrow part of the cliff at El Rio. All the buildings, except the church and three or four private houses, are very mean structures. The town contains about three hundred inhabitants.

Graciosa lies on the north side of Lancerota. This island is barren, uninhabited, and destitute of water, though it is about three miles in length, and two in breadth.

The island of Fuerteventura is about eighty miles in length, and about fifteen in breadth. It belongs to the lord of Lancerota, and is about twenty-four leagues distant from Grand Canaria. The north end of this island lies about seven miles south and by west from the south-west point of Lancerota, and in the channel between them is the little uninhabited island of Lobos, or seals, which is about a league in circumference. The middle of Fuerteventura is narrow and low, being almost cut in two by the sea. That part of the island on the south-side of the isthmus is mountainous, sandy, barren, and almost uninhabited; but the northern part is also mountainous, yet it is fertile and well peopled within land.

There are several bays and harbours in this island, and three small towns, one of which, called Oliva, is situated somewhat less than two leagues within land from the road of Lobos, in the midst of a plain that abounds with corn-fields. Here is a church and about fifty good houses.

The next town is La Villa, which is the chief in the island, and is situated in the centre of that part which lies north of the isthmus, and has a church, a convent of Franciscan friars, and near one hundred houses.

Here is also a town called Tunche, which contains about one hundred houses; but they are very mean, when compared with those of La Villa and Oliva.

Besides the above, there are many small villages scattered up and down in the northern and inland parts of the island, which stand extremely thick together.

A remarkable circumstance relating to these islands, is, that when there is a strong westerly wind, the sea breaks on the rocks, at the north-west end of Lobos, with such violence, as to strike the beholders with terror. "I may without exaggeration affirm, (says a gentleman who travelled to these parts) that I have seen breakers there near sixty feet high: were one of these to strike the strongest ship, she would be staved to pieces in a moment. When I saw those mighty breakers, our ship had just passed through the channel between Fuerteventura and Lobos: we had a fine brisk trade wind at north-north-east; and though we had no less than ten fathom water when we came into the westerly swell, yet we trembled for fear the waves would have broken, and thought ourselves happy when we got out of soundings. After we had passed these breakers six or seven leagues, we heard the noise of them like distant thunder."

We shall now give an account of the climate, soil, vegetables, and animals, &c. of Lancerota and Fuerteventura.

These islands have both of them the advantage of a wholesome climate, which perhaps is owing to the dryness of the soil, and the strong northerly winds that almost continually blow; whence the inhabitants in general live to a great age. From the middle or end of April, to the beginning or middle of October, the wind blows violently, and almost without intermission, from the north and north-east. From the middle of October, to the end of April, it most commonly blows in the same direction; but sometimes intermits, and gives place to other winds. The south-west wind always brings rain, and therefore is most welcome. Other winds, particularly the north-west, bring showers, but these are partial, and of short duration: but the rain which comes from the south-west frequently lasts two or three days. When these rains begin to fall, the natives sow their grain, and about fourteen or twenty days after the latter rains, that is towards the end of April, it is ready for reaping. The north, and north-north-east winds blow so hard and constantly, as to prevent the growth of all sorts of trees, especially in Lancerota, which is most exposed to their violence: yet we find there a few shrubs called tubaybas, which never grow to a great height any where; but here spread along the ground, ex-

cept when sheltered from the wind by rocks and walls. In the gardens are fig-trees, or some low trees, or shrubs, which seldom shoot up higher than the walls of the garden.

This island, being less exposed to the wind than Lancerota, is not quite so bare of trees and shrubs, and produces the palm, the wild olive, and a sort of wild pine; also cotton and euphorbium shrubs, the shrub which bears the prickly pear, and fig-trees.

These islands though destitute of trees, abound in excellent herbage, and several kinds of odoriferous flowers. The great plenty and variety of these induced the inhabitants to bring bees from the other islands in order to propagate here; but they were disappointed; for none of those insects would remain with them, they not being able to bear the violent winds that prevail here.

Various kinds of corn grow in both these islands, as wheat, barley, and maize, which are produced in such abundance, as not only to serve the inhabitants, but also those off Teneriff and Palma, who depend greatly on these islands for their sustenance. No vines were produced at Lancerota till within thirty years past, when a volcano breaking out, covered many fields with ashes, which have so improved the soil, that vines are now planted and yield grapes; but the wine made from them is thin, poor, and so sharp as to resemble vinegar, yet is very wholesome. A greater quantity of wine, and of a quality something superior to that of Lancerota, is produced here.

On the sea coast grows a great quantity of orchilla-weed, an ingredient used in dying. It grows out of the pores of the rocks, to about three inches, and sometimes eight or ten inches. It is of a round form, and of the thickness of common sewing twine; it is of a grey colour, inclining to white, and on the stalk are white spots. Many stalks proceed from the root, at a distance from which they divide into branches. This weed dyes a beautiful purple, and is also much used for brightening and enlivening other colours. The best sort is that of the darkest colour, and of a form exactly round: the more it abounds with white spots or scabs, the more valuable it is. This weed also grows in the Madeira and Cape de Verd islands, and on the coast of Barbary; but the best sort, and the greatest quantity is found in the Canary islands. There is some reason to believe, that the orchilla was the getulian purple of the antients; and in support of this opinion, it is observed, that the coast of Africa adjacent to the Canary islands was called by the antients Getulia, and abounds with orchilla-weed.

Few springs or wells are in Lancerota. The inhabitants use for themselves and cattle rain water, which they preserve in pits and cisterns. This is also practised in Fuerteventura, though they have more springs and wells; but the water is generally brackish. At El Rio, to the northward of the salt works mentioned in the last section, is a well of medicinal water, esteemed a sovereign cure for the itch. It is also good for common drinking, and will keep sweet at sea for a considerable time.

Camels, horses, asses, bullocks, sheep, goats, and hogs are found here, all of which, except the sheep and goats, were brought from Barbary and Spain, since the conquests of these islands by the Spaniards. The horses are of the Barbary breed, and are much esteemed in Canaria and Teneriff, for their spirit and swiftness; but the natives of those two islands we are now describing have little or no use for them, on account of their having no great distance to travel, and therefore little care is taken to increase the breed; whence their number is at present very small. The natives use for travelling asses of a larger size than those of the other islands, which serve well enough for their short journies, and require little expence to keep them.

Their cattle, being fat and good, appear in the spring plump, sleek, and glisten as if rubbed with oil; but in the beginning of autumn, when all the grass is either withered or eaten up, they have a very different appearance, and are unfit for eating.

They generally plow here with a camel, or a couple of asses, for the soil is light, and they do not plow deep in the ground.

The want of trees or bushes occasions a scarcity of birds and wild fowl; yet there are some canary birds, and a bird called tubayba, about the size of a starling, speckled black and white. Here are likewise partridges and ravens, with plenty of dunghill fowls; but neither turkies, geese, nor ducks; the want of the two last species may probably be owing to the scarcity of water.

The black spider is the only venomous animal here, the bite of which the natives say occasions a swelling, attended

tended with a burning pain. Their cure for it is to eat a small quantity of human ordure.

The inhabitants catch great quantities of fish of various kinds on the sea coasts of these islands, particularly a kind of cod, much better tasted than that of Newfoundland, or of the north sea. Another fish of a still more excellent taste is caught here, called mero: it is as long as a cod; but much thicker, and has long straps or whiskers hanging at its mouth. There are many other sorts of fish, for which they have no name; one of them however ought not to be omitted; this is the picudo or sea pike, the bite of which is as poisonous as that of a viper: yet when this fish is killed and dressed, it is good and innocent food. There are many shell-fish, and particularly limpets on the rocks by the sea-shore.

In both these islands are many hills that were formerly volcanoes, the tops of which are of a small circumference, and are hollow for a little way downwards; the edges of the tops being usually narrow and sharp, and on the outside is generally seen a great deal of black dust and burnt stone like pumice-stone, only darker and more ponderous. No eruptions have been known to happen for several ages, except that already mentioned at Lancerota, which about thirty years ago broke out on the south-west part of the island, throwing out such an immense quantity of ashes and huge stones, and with so dreadful a noise, that many of the inhabitants leaving their houses fled to Fuerteventura; but some time after, finding that those who had ventured to stay had received no hurt, they took courage and returned. This volcano was near the sea, in a place remote from any habitation. At a small distance from the volcano a pillar of smoke issued from the sea, and afterwards a small pyramid rock arose, and still continues. This rock was joined to the island by the matter thrown out of the volcano. The noise of this eruption was so loud, that it was heard at Teneriff, which stands at the distance of forty leagues; which was probably occasioned by the winds generally blowing towards it from Lancerota.

With respect to the manners and customs of the ancient inhabitants of Lancerota and Fuerteventura, historians have furnished us with the following particulars; namely, That the people were in those times of a larger size and better made than those of the others, and so they are to day. The dress of the natives of Lancerota was made of goat-skins sewed together, reached down to the knees, and was formed like a cloak with a hood. The seams of this habit were neatly sewed with slender thongs of leather, which were as fine as common thread. Those thongs they prepared with sharp flints or stones, instead of knives or scissars. They wore bonnets made of goats skins, with three large feathers stuck in the front. The women wore the same, with a fillet of leather dyed red with the bark of some shrubs. They had long hair, and wore their beards plaited. Their shoes were also of goats-skin, with the hairy side outwards. The king of the island wore a diadem like a bishop's mitre, made of goat's leather, and adorned with sea-shells.

These people ate their victuals out of vessels made of clay hardened by the heat of the sun. Their food was barley-meal roasted, which they called goffio, and goat's flesh boiled and roasted; also milk and butter.

If any of them were sick, which seldom happened, they cured themselves with the herbs that grew in the country; and when they had acute pains, they scarified the part affected with sharp stones, or burnt it with fire, and then anointed it with goat's butter. When any one died, they laid him between goat's skins in a cave, stretching out the body.

When they sowed their land with barley, which was their own grain, they turned it up with goat's horns: the corn they threshed with sticks, winnowed it with their hands, and ground it with a hand-mill made of two stones. Their method of lighting a fire was by taking a stick of dry, hard, thorny wood, which they caused to turn rapidly round on the point, within a soft, dry, spongy thistle, and so set it on fire: and this method has been used to this day.

Each of these islands was divided into a certain number of lordships, and separated one from another by a wall of loose stones, that crossed the island from sea to sea. Teneriff in particular, was ruled by nine different lords, or petty sovereigns; and these had frequent wars with each other. But the inhabitants of these quarters had a great esteem for the respective chiefs who governed them.

The inhabitants of both these islands were of humane, social, and cheerful dispositions, extremely fond of singing and dancing. Their music was vocal, accompanied with

a noise made by clapping their hands, and beating with their feet. They were remarkably nimble, and took great delight in leaping and jumping, which were their principal diversions. Two men took a staff, which they held by the ends, and lifted up as high above their heads as they could reach, keeping it parallel with the ground; and he who could leap over it was esteemed very dextrous. Some of them were so active, that they could, at three leaps, bound over three poles placed in that manner behind each other. They also climbed up craggy rocks with amazing agility, and descended with equal ease. They frequently quarrelled, and then fought with sticks a yard and an half long.

It was a custom among them, that if a man entered the door of his enemy's house, and wounded or killed him, he was not punished; but if he came upon him unawares, by leaping over the wall, and killed him, the captain, or chief, by whom the cause was tried, ordered him to be slain.

Their manner of executing criminals, was as follows: they carried them to the sea-shore, and, placing their heads on a flat stone, took another of a round form, and with it dashed out their brains. Their children were held infamous, after the parents had been thus punished.

These people were excellent swimmers, and used to kill the fish on their coasts with sticks. Their houses were built of stone without cement, yet were strong; and the entry was made so narrow, that only one person could pass at a time. They had also houses for worship and devotion; these were round, and composed of two walls, one within the other, with a space between; and, like their dwelling-houses, were built of loose stones, with a narrow entry. They worshipped only one God, and in these temples offered to him milk and butter. They adored him by lifting up their hands to heaven at their offerings on the mountains, at which they also poured out goats milk to him from earthen vessels.

The dress of the inhabitants of Fuerteventura consisted of jackets made of sheep-skins, with short sleeves that reached only to their elbows. They had short breeches that left the knees bare, and short stockings that reached but just above the calf of the leg. They dressed the hair of their heads and beards like the natives of Lancerota, wore the same sort of shoes, and had high caps on their heads made of goat-skins.

With respect to the present inhabitants of these two islands, though they pass for Spaniards, they are sprung from a mixture of the ancient inhabitants with the Normans and other Europeans, by whom they were subdued; and from some Moorish captives, whom the Spaniards had brought from the coast of Barbary to these islands.

The natives are generally tall, robust, strong, and of a very dark complexion; but those of the other islands account them rude and unpolished in their manners and behaviour.

They neither speak nor understand any other language but the Castilian, which they pronounce most barbarously. They dress coarsely, and after the Spanish fashion; for the short cloak and gobilla, formerly used by the Spaniards, are unknown here.

They build their houses in general of stone and lime: those belonging to the gentry are covered with pantiles; but the meaner sort thatch theirs with straw. They generally pave the floors with flag-stones. Few even of the better kind, have either ciplings or lofts; but they are built in the form of large barns, and divided into apartments by boarded partitions that rise no higher than the walls; so that all the rooms are open above, and have no other covering than the roof.

A dish called goffio, is the usual diet of the peasants: this is the flour of wheat, or barley, well heated by the fire, which they make into dough with water, and then eat it, without either knives, forks, or spoons, which are not wanted. They sometimes make it up with their hands in balls or lumps, which they dip in honey or molasses; and, during the winter, when grass is in perfection, and they have plenty of excellent milk, they put the goffio into it, using sea-shells instead of spoons. They also prepare goffio by putting it into boiling milk, and stirring it about till it is sufficiently boiled and thickened. On particular occasions, such as festivals and weddings, the poor eat fish and flesh: but bread is rarely used by any but the gentry, and there are some people in those islands who have never tasted it. Water is their usual liquor, as they seldom drink any wine.

Few of the men in Lancerota and Fuerteventura, are artificers; for almost all their cloaths are made by the women,

women, and their household furniture is brought from the other islands. The peasants are employed in tilling the ground, sowing, reaping, and other parts of husbandry.

The class of people deemed gentry in these islands, are so averse to leaving their country, and have so little curiosity, that few of them visit Spain, or even Canaria, except when obliged to attend their law-suits in that island. A gentleman who possesses a few acres of land, a camel, a couple of asses, and a dozen sheep, would chuse rather to live all his days on goshio, than venture to the Spanish West-Indies, in order to better his fortune by trade, which, in his opinion, would disgrace him and his family for ever; yet he will, without shame, oppress the poor peasants, and deceive strangers, in order to support his imaginary rank, which, among the middling sort, consists wholly in not working, and riding a little way on an ass, attended by a ragged servant.

The religion of the church of Rome is the only one professed here; but there are but few monks, and no nuns among them: they are, however, in no want of priests, for there are several parish-churches, and an inferior court of inquisition in each island, in order to prevent heresy.

Though all the Canary islands are subject to Spain, yet the natives of the two we are now describing, with those of Gomera and Hierro, do not hold their lands of the crown, but of the family of Don Diego de Herrera, who conquered the island of Canaria. The chief part of the power originally possessed by the proprietors of these islands has been, however, taken from them, and annexed to the crown, probably on account of their making an ill use of such an extensive authority.

The government is now vested in an alcalde major and a sargento major, also called governador de las armas. The first is the head of the civil, and the other of the military government. There is an appeal from the decision of the alcalde major to the royal audience in the island of Canaria; and the sargento major receives his orders from the governor-general of the Canary Islands, who usually resides in Teneriff. No standing forces are kept here; but there is a militia properly regulated and divided into companies, to each of which is a captain, lieutenant, and ensign. The sargento major is colonel, and takes care that their arms are kept in order, and that the companies may be raised at a short notice.

These islands, though but little esteemed by the Spanish government, are really of great value; for were they once subdued by any other nation, Palma and Teneriff would fall of course, on account of their depending on Lancerota and Fuerteventura for their corn. Besides, the forts in Lancerota would afford convenient retreats, where the cruising ships of an enemy might carcen, and be supplied with provisions and water.

The commodities exported from hence are entirely confined to the other islands, and consist of wheat, barley, maize, cattle, fowls, cheese, orchilla wood, goats skins, and salt fish; but the two last are only exported from Lancerota. The wheat is small grained, but hard, clean, and so good, that it always sells at Teneriff at a higher price, by one-fifth, than either English or other European wheat. About ten years ago a number of camels were exported from Fuerteventura to Jamaica, and other parts of the English West-Indies; but this trade was soon prohibited, for fear of losing the breed, or at least raising the price of those animals to the natives.

The Spaniards having brought ass to Fuerteventura, they increased so fast, that they ran wild among the mountains, and were so prejudicial to the natives by eating their corn and other grain, that in the year 1591, they assembled all the inhabitants and dogs in the island, in order to destroy them; and accordingly killed no less than fifteen hundred. Since that time there have been no more in the island than is sufficient to supply the wants of the natives.

We before observed that they impolitely prohibit the exportation of corn to any place except the other islands; whence in a year of great plenty it becomes of so little value, as scarcely to pay the expence of cutting it down. Hence they are very indifferent about raising more than what they can consume themselves, or sell in the other islands; so that in a bad year the people starve for want, especially the inhabitants of Teneriff, unless they are so happy as to be supplied from Europe with that necessary article.

Most of the imports are from the other islands, especially from Teneriff, which is the centre of trade for all the Canary Islands. These consist in English woollen goods, and German linens, both of the coarsest kinds, wine, brandy, oil, fruit, planks, and other timber, barks

and fishing-boats, household furniture, tobacco, snuff, bees-wax, soap, candles, and a considerable quantity of cash, which they receive in the balance of trade, part of which is paid to the proprietors of the lands, and the rest sent to Grand Canaria, to support the expence of their law-suits; the natives of all the Canary Islands being generally extremely litigious and quarrelsome.

S E C T. XII.

Treating of the Island of GRAND CANARIA, both with respect to its Antient and Modern State.

THE island of Grand Canaria is greatly superior to the rest of these islands, not only on account of the delightful temperature of the air, and the plenty of good water, trees, herbs, and delicious fruits found upon it, but by reason of its being the seat of justice, and government for them all; so that the name of the Fortunate Island may justly be ascribed to it.

From the traditions of the natives concerning this island, we are informed, that some time before the conquest of it by the Europeans, Canaria was governed by several petty sovereigns, amongst whom Antidamana, the queen of a most fertile district of the island, was celebrated for her wisdom, equity, and eloquence; so that she became revered by the people of the other districts, and was appealed to as the general arbitrator of their differences. Her great influence, however, gave umbrage to, and raised the jealousy of the other sovereigns, who employed their utmost efforts to prejudice the Canarians against her, and represented, that it was scandalous for men to submit their reason to the voice and decision of a woman, when they might have their causes decided in proper courts, and tried before competent judges, as their ancestors had always done before them.

These insinuations answered the purposes for which they were designed, and the queen found her influence gradually decrease. This piqued her so much, that she determined to give her hand to Gumiduff, a brave and popular officer. The nuptials were no sooner performed, than the queen invested her husband with half her power, and made him sole commander of her army. Having put himself at the head of the troops, he successively attacked the other petty sovereigns, conquered them with great rapidity, and brought all their dominions beneath his own sway.

This prince left a son by Antidamana, who succeeded him as king of the whole island; and this son, at his death, left two sons, between whom he equally divided his dominions. These were, on their respective thrones, trying to maintain what their father had left them, and the deposed petty sovereigns were aiming to regain what they had lost, at the time the Spaniards conquered the island; which event, at the same time that it united them in one general calamity, put a final period to all their intestine disputes.

Canaria is about forty-two miles in length, twenty-seven in breadth, and a hundred and five in circumference, reckoning the length from the north-east point southward to the point Arganeguin, and the breadth from the port of Agaete, on the west side of the island, to that of Gando on the East.

The north-east point of Canaria lies at the distance of eighteen leagues from the south-west end of Fuerteventura, and in clear weather either of those islands may be seen from the other.

Towards the centre of the island, is a number of lofty mountains, which rise so far above the clouds, as to stop the current of the north-east wind that generally blows here; so that when this wind blows hard on the north side of the mountains, it is either quite calm on the other, or a gentle breeze blows from the south-west. The calms and eddy winds caused by the height of the mountains above the atmosphere, extend twenty or twenty-five leagues beyond them to the south-west. There are also calms beyond some of the rest of the islands; for those of Teneriff extend fifteen leagues into the ocean, the calms of Palma thirty, and those of Gomera ten. Upon first coming to the calms, the waves appear foaming and boiling like a pot, breaking in all directions; and when a vessel enters the verge of them, she is shaken and beaten by the waves on all sides in such a manner, that one would imagine it impossible to withstand them. This confusion, however, does not last long; for after a ship is once fairly entered into the calms, she will either find a dead calm, and smooth water,

water; or a pleasant and constant breeze at south or south-west, according as the wind blows without; for this eddy wind, as it may be called, constantly blows in an opposite direction.

There is a peninsula at the north-east end of Canaria, about two leagues in circumference, which is connected with the main land by an isthmus about two miles in length, and a quarter of a mile in breadth at the narrowest part. On each side of the isthmus is a bay, which on the north side is exposed to the swell of the sea. That on the other side is called by some Porto de Luz, and by others Porto de Isletes, from some steep rocks or islands at the entrance of the bay, towards the north-east. This is a good road for ships of any burthen, with all winds, except the south-east; but that wind is not common, and rarely blows so hard as to endanger ships. The landing-place is at the bottom of the bay, where stands a hermitage, or chapel, dedicated to St. Catharine, and a castle of no strength.

At three miles distance is the city of Palmas, the capital of the island, between which and the above castle are two other forts, mounted with guns; but they have no garrisons, except a few invalids. At the other end of the city is another castle, called St. Pedro; but neither of them are capable of standing against a regular attack. Though the city of Palmas is of no strength, it is pretty large, and contains several fine buildings, particularly the cathedral of St. Anne, with many churches, convents of friars of all orders, and nunneries. The private houses are in general good, and built with stone. The city is divided into two parts, which have a communication by a bridge, thrown over a small stream of water, and there are supposed to be six thousand inhabitants.

The port of Gando is situated on the south-east part of the island, and the port of Gaete, or Agaete, on the north-west part of the island, which has a castle for its defence. The whole coast, except these ports, is generally inaccessible to boats and vessels, on account of the breaking of the sea upon it. This indeed is the case of the shores of all the Canary Islands, particularly at the full and change of the moon, except those of Lancerota and Fuerteventura. There are no inland cities or large towns in Canaria, though there are many villages, the chief of which are Telde and Galdar.

The fruits of Grand Canaria are melons, pears, apples, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, peaches, batatoes, or Spanish potatoes. The plantain grows near the sides of brooks, is very strait in the body, and has surprizing thick leaves, which grow not on the branches, but at the extremities of the tree. Every leaf is almost six feet long, and almost two broad. The fruit grows on the branches, of which each tree hath but three or four. The fruit in shape resembles a cucumber, and, when ripe, turns black, at which time it is one of the most delicious conserves in the universe. The plantain tree will bear fruit but once, when it is cut down, and another tree springs from the same root; the cutting down is therefore repeated every season, as soon as the fruit is gathered. As this island hath a salubrious air, and is well watered, almost every thing thrives that is planted, such as the pine, palm, wild olive, laurel, poplar, dragon-tree, lera nueffa, or lignum rhodium, the aloe shrub, Indian fig, or prickly pear. Besides those above-mentioned, they have all the American and European fruits, except the anana. They have also wheat, barley, and maize, potatoes, yams, the best onions in the world, cabbages and fallads, and many kinds of roots.

The climate in this island is extremely delightful; for the heat in summer seldom exceeds what is generally felt in England in July and August, and the coldest part of the winter is not sharper than with us about the end of May, in a backward season. The same winds blow here at the same periods as at Lancerota and Fuerteventura; but the northerly wind is less furious, and compared with that, is only a gentle breeze that cools the air, so as to render it agreeably temperate; and the sky is continually serene, and free from storms and thunder.

The only disagreeable weather is, when the south-east wind blows from the desert of Zaara; but this does not often happen. These winds, being very hot, dry and stinging, are of great prejudice to the fruits of the earth, by their pernicious quality, and by their bringing clouds, which devour every green thing they light upon. In the mountains, indeed, the air is not only cold in winter, but their summits are uninhabitable, from the great quantities of snow that fall upon them in that season, but the air is exceedingly wholesome below.

Notwithstanding there is in Canaria more level and arable land than in any of the islands to the westward of it, yet that bears no proportion to the barren, strong and rocky ground. The mountain of Doramas is the most fertile part of this island: it is situated about two leagues from the city of Palmas, and shaded by groves of fragrant trees of different kinds, whose lofty boughs are so interwoven as to exclude the rays of the sun. The rills that water these shady groves, the whispering breeze among the trees, and the singing of the canary-birds, form a delightful concert.

A modern naturalist gives us the following account of this most beautiful singing-bird: "This bird was originally peculiar to these isles, to which it owes its name; the same that were known to the antients by the addition of the *Fortunate*. On the same spot these charming songsters are still to be found; but they are now so plentiful among us, that we are under no necessity of crossing the ocean for them. In its native regions, the canary-bird is of a dusky grey colour, and so different from those seen in Europe, that doubts have arisen whether it be of the same species. Next to the nightingale, the canary-bird is considered as the most celebrated songster; it is also reared with less difficulty than any of the soft-billed birds, and continues its song throughout the year."

We cannot give a very agreeable description of the upper part of this island, which is entirely barren and desolate; for as it projects far above the clouds, neither dew nor rain fall upon it, so that it is exposed to a dry, parching wind, entirely different from the trade-wind below, which generally blows from the west. This westerly wind blows hard in the night, but abates in the day.

The amazing quantity of calcined stones, ashes, and lava, that cover the greatest part of all the Canary islands, greatly disfigure them. But though it does not appear that any volcano has burnt in Canaria, since the island was conquered by the Spaniards, nevertheless the apertures from whence combustible matter proceeded may be discerned in all quarters of this and the other islands, as may also the channels made by the fiery streams that flowed from the volcanos.

Olives have been planted in this island; but no oil is made of the fruit, which does not come to such perfection as in Spain, Barbary, and other countries. Formerly much sugar was made here; but the great demand for the wines and brandies of this island in the Spanish West Indies, stopped the culture of the sugar cane, and the natives find it more to their advantage to receive the produce of their wines at the Havannah in sugar, than to raise it in their own country. Canaria also abounds in honey, which is good, though of a black colour. The wine of this island, though of a very agreeable taste, has not such a body as that of Teneriff, and is therefore less fit for exportation, yet many pipes of it are annually sent to the Spanish West Indies.

Camels, horses, asses, a few mules, bullocks, sheep, goats, hogs, and rabbits, are among the animals of this island. The poultry are dunghill fowls, turkies, geese, ducks, partridges; there are also crows and canary-birds.

There does not appear to be any serpents, scorpions, or other venomous creatures here, except the spider of Lancerota, and a very innocent kind of snake peculiar to the island of Gomera; but lizards abound in this and all the other islands.

We shall now treat of the antient inhabitants of Canaria, their persons, dress, manners, and customs, &c.

It appears, by the accounts of the first discoverers of Grand Canaria, that the original inhabitants amounted to upwards of 14,000 men capable of bearing arms; exclusive of women, children, aged persons, &c. which must have rendered the island extremely populous; but some time after the first arrival of the Europeans there, a pestilence swept away two thirds of the inhabitants. These were of a dark complexion, like the natives of Lancerota and Fuerteventura, of a good stature, and well proportioned, active, warlike, chearful, good-natured, and faithful to their promises; for they considered a lie as one of the greatest crimes. They were fearless of dangers, and fond of hazardous enterprises, such as climbing to the tops of steep precipices, and there fixing poles of so great a weight, that one of them was of sufficient burden for a man of common strength to carry on level ground; and with these they would leap from one rock to another.

Their dress was a short tight coat, with a hood to it like that of a Capuchin friar; it reached to the knees, and was fastened to the waist by a leathern girdle. This garment was made of a kind of rush, which they beat

till

till it became soft like flax, and then they spun and wove it. Over this they had a goat-skin cloak, with the hairy side inward in winter, and outward in summer. They had likewise caps made of the skins of the heads of goats, taken off almost entire, which they formed in such a manner that a goat's beard hung under each ear, and these they sometimes tied under the chin. Some had bonnets of skins, adorned with feathers. These garments were all neatly sewed and painted, and were in every respect much more curious than those of the natives of the other islands. Some of them wore shoes made of raw hides, the workmanship of which was very neat, and others went barefooted.

The noble or superior rank of the Canarians had an external mark of distinction from those of the vulgar or lower class, which was by the cut of their hair and beards; but a man could not be entitled to this honour, merely from his being the offspring of noble or rich parents; but was to be declared noble by the *faycag*, a person whose business it was to decide disputes among the natives, and regulate the ceremonies of their religion; in short, he was a priest, and acted also as a judge in civil affairs.

The manner in which nobility was conferred was very singular. At a particular time of life, the son of a nobleman let his hair grow long; and when he had obtained sufficient strength to endure the fatigues of war, went to the *faycag* and said "I am the son of such a nobleman, and desire also to be ennobled." Upon this the *faycag* went to the town or village where the young man was brought up, and there assembled all the nobles, and other persons of the place, whom he caused solemnly to swear by their god *Acoran*, to declare the truth. He then asked them if they had ever seen the youth so far demean himself as to dress victuals, or to go into the folds to look after the sheep or goats, and whether he was ever seen to milk or kill them? If he was ever known to steal cattle, or forcibly take them in time of peace from their owners? Whether he was ever discourteous, of a slanderous disposition, or guilty of any indecent behaviour, especially to women? If they all answered these questions in the negative, the *faycag* cut the youth's hair in a round form, so short as not to hang below his ears, and giving him a staff, declared him noble. But if any of the standers by could charge him with any of the offences mentioned by the *faycag*, and bring sufficient proof of them, instead of being declared noble, the *faycag* shaved his head, and sent him away in disgrace, by which means he was rendered incapable of nobility.

They esteemed it base and mean to molest or injure the women and children of the enemy taken prisoners in war, whom they considered as weak and helpless, and therefore improper objects of their resentment; nor did they offer the least damage to the enemy's temples.

The antient Canarians used clubs and sharp-pointed poles hardened by fire; but after the Europeans began to invade their island, they formed shields in imitation of theirs, and swords of pitch-pine, the edges of which were hardened by fire, and sharpened in such a manner, that it is said they cut like steel; but their chief strength lay in their wooden spears, and their throwing stones with great force and skill.

They appointed public places for fighting, in which a kind of stages were raised for the combatants, that they might be more easily seen by the spectators. On a challenge being given and accepted, the parties went to the council of the island, which consisted of twelve members, for a licence to fight, which was easily obtained, and then they went to the *faycag*, to have this licence confirmed. Afterwards they assembled all their relations and friends, that they might be spectators of their bravery and skill, and with them repaired to the public place or theatre, where the combatants mounting on two stones flat at the top, and placed at the opposite sides, threw stones at each other, which, though good marksmen, they generally avoided, merely by their agility in writhing their bodies, without moving their feet. When each had thrown three stones at his antagonist, they armed themselves with a cudgel in their right hand, and a sharp flint in their left, then drawing near, they beat and cut each other till they were tired, and then retired with their friends to take some refreshment; but soon returning, fought till the twelve members of the council called out, *Gama, gama, or Enough, enough*, when they instantly desisted, and ever after remained good friends. If during the combat one of the parties happened to break his cudgel, the other instantly desisted from striking, and the dispute was ended in an amicable manner, though neither of the parties was

declared victor. These combats were usually fought on public festivals, rejoicings, or the like occasions; and if either of the combatants was deeply wounded, they beat a rush till it became like tow, and dipping it in melted goat's butter, applied it to the wound as hot as the patient could bear it; and the older the butter was, the sooner they say a cure was affected.

There were also public houses or rooms, in which they assembled to dance and sing. The Canarian dance is still in use in these islands; it has a quick and short step, and is called *Canario*. Their songs were either amorous sonnets, set to grave and plaintive tunes, or solemn dirges.

They build their houses of stone, without cement, which were nevertheless so neat and regular, that they made a handsome appearance. The walls were very low, and the floors sunk beneath the level of the ground on which they stood, being so contrived for the advantage of warmth in the winter season. At the top they laid wooden beams, or rafters close to each other, and covered them with earth. Their beds and bedding were the skins of goats dressed in their hair. Their other furniture consisted of baskets and mats of palm leaves, and rushes very neatly made.

They had people among them whose sole employment was building houses and making of mats. The women were generally employed in painting and dying; and in the proper season they carefully gathered the flowers and shrubs from which they extracted their several colours. The thread they used in sewing was made of the nerves and tendons of the loins of sheep, goats, or swine, with which they were supplied by the butchers. These they first anointed with butter, and then prepared by fire in such a manner, that they could split them into fine threads at their pleasure. Their needles were of bone, and their fish-hooks of horn. The vessels they used in cookery were made of clay, which they placed in the sun to harden.

The Canarians (especially the better sort) would not follow the trade of a butcher; for that employment was reckoned so ignominious, that they would not allow one of that profession to enter any of their houses, or to touch any thing belonging to them. It was even unlawful for the butchers to keep company with any that were not of their profession; and when they wanted any thing of another person, they were obliged to carry a staff, and standing at a considerable distance, point at what they wanted; but, to compensate for this abject state, the natives were obliged to supply the butchers with every thing they wanted. It was unlawful for any Canarian, except the butchers, to kill cattle; and when any person wanted his beast to be slain, he was forced to lead it to the public shambles, but was not permitted to enter himself; even women and children were subject to this prohibition.

Their common food was barley-meal roasted, which they eat with milk or goat's flesh; and when they made a feast, they dressed the latter with hog's lard or butter. They ground their barley with a hand-mill. When they went to plough their lands, about twenty people assembled together, each had a wooden instrument resembling a hoe, with a spur at the end of it, on which they fixed a goat's horn: with this they broke the ground, and if the rain did not fall in its proper season, they moistened the earth with water, which they brought by canals from the rivulets. The corn was gathered in by the women, who reaped only the ears; these they threshed with sticks, or beat out the corn with their feet, and winnowed it with their hands. Their wealth consisted chiefly in their sheep, goats, and hogs.

The lower class of people by the sea-coast, lived chiefly on fish, which they usually caught in the night, by making a great light with torches of pitch-pine. In the daytime, whenever they perceived a shoal of sardinas, a small fish that has some resemblance to a pilchard, a multitude of men, women, and children, went at a small distance into the sea, and swimming beyond the shoal, chased the fish towards the shore, and with a net, made of a tough kind of rush, inclosed and drew them to land, where they equally divided their prize; but in doing this, every woman who had a young child, received a share for each; or if she happened to be pregnant, she received the allowance of two persons.

These people had never more than one wife. When the parents were disposed to marry their daughter, they fed her thirty days with large quantities of milk and gossio, in order to fatten her; for they thought that lean women were less capable of conceiving children than those who

were fat, and that it was a bad omen for people to marry when lean.

The Canarians were very careful in the education of their children, and never failed to chastise them when they did amiss. It was usual to propose two of the youth as examples to the rest, the one of virtue, the other of vice; and when a child did any thing that was praise-worthy, he was commended, and told that such behaviour was amiable, and resembled that of the good boy. On the other hand, when a child displeased its parents, they observed that such an action resembled those of the person set up as a bad example. By this means they raised a spirit of emulation for excelling in virtue.

There were religious women, called Magadas, among the Canarians, a number of whom lived together in one house, or convent, of which there were many in Canaria; and these were held so sacred, that criminals who fled to any of them were protected from the officers of justice. The Magadas maintained, that Acoran, their god, dwelt on high, and governed every thing on earth; and when they addressed him, lifted up their joined hands to heaven. These women were distinguished from others by their long white garments, which swept the ground as they passed.

In this island are two rocks, to which the inhabitants, in times of public calamity, went in procession, accompanied by the religious women, carrying in their hands palm branches, and vessels filled with milk and butter, which they poured on the rocks, dancing round them, and singing mournful songs; from thence they went to the sea-shore, and all at once shouting together with a loud voice, struck the water with their rods.

Good government was maintained, and justice strictly administered, among the Canarians. At the time of the conquest of the island, it was governed by two princes, each of whom had his separate district; but before they were ruled by captains, or heads of tribes, who presided over small circles. The people of each tribe were confined to their own districts, and not allowed to graze their flocks on the ground belonging to another tribe. For crimes of a less criminal nature they used the law of retaliation (an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth); but such crimes as deserved death were punished by dashing out their brains with a stone, in the manner already related.

When any of the nobles died, they brought out the corpse, and placing it in the sun, took out his entrails, and buried them in the earth; then drying the body, they swathed it round with bandages of goat-skins, and fixed it upright in a cave, clothed with the same garments which the deceased wore when alive; but if no proper cave was at hand, the body was carried to one of the stony places, now called Mal Paices, where, after they had levelled the ground, and fixed the loose stones, they made a sort of artificial cave of large stones placed so as not to touch the body, and then taking another large stone two yards in length, wrought into a round form, with this closed the entrance, and afterwards filled up the outside between the top of the round stone and the outward part of the other large ones with small ones, in a very neat manner.

All the corpses, except those placed upright in the caves, were laid with their heads towards the north. Some of their dead bodies were put into chests, and afterwards deposited in stone sepulchres. People of the lower class were interred in the Mal Paices, in holes covered with stones.

SECT. XIII.

Containing a Description of the Island and Pike of TENERIFF; also of the Islands of GOMORA and PALMA; their Situation, Towns, Harbours, Climate, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

THE island of Teneriff was antiently called Nivaria, from the snow that incloses the neck of the pike of Teyda, like a collar; the name of Teneriff, or the White Mountain, being given it by the natives of Palma, in whose language Tener signifies snow, and iffe, white; the summit of the pike of Teneriff being always covered with snow; the present names it Vinchoni, but it was called Chineche by the natives.

Point Nago, or Anaga, which is the north-east point of Teneriff, bears north-west about sixteen leagues distant from the north-west part of Canaria; but from that part of Canaria to the nearest part of Teneriff, the distances does not exceed twelve leagues.

This island is nearly triangular, the three sides being almost equal, and each about twelve leagues long. In the

center is the famous pike of Teneriff which is said to be the highest hill in the universe, and strikes the beholder with amazement, both near and at a distance. This great mountain extends its base to Garrachino, from whence it is two days and a half's journey to the top; but we shall treat more particularly of this in the sequel.

In coming in with Teneriff, in clear weather, the pike may be easily discerned at a hundred and twenty miles distance; and in sailing from it, at the distance of a hundred and fifty miles, it then resembles a thin blue vapour, or smoke, very little darker than the sky; and at a farther distance, the shade disappearing is not distinguishable from the azure of the firmament. Before we lose sight of this towering mountain, it seems a considerable height above the horizon, though from its distance, and the spherical figure of the earth, the rest of the island is sunk beneath the horizon, notwithstanding its being exceedingly high.

There are several high perpendicular rocks near Punto de Nago; and on the south-east side of the island, about five or six leagues distant from them, is the harbour of Santa Cruz, the most frequented part in the Canary islands. The best road for ships is about a mile to the northward; between the middle of the town and fort or castle, ships may lie here secure from all winds, though the bay is exposed to those which blow from the north-east coasts, and south-east, yet these winds do not blow so hard as to cause any considerable damage above once in the space of four or five years. However, some years ago most of the shipping in the road were driven on shore by one of these gales. Some English ships were then in the harbour; but the crews prudently cutting away their masts, rode out the storm.

A mole, built at a vast expence, for the convenience of landing, is in the middle of the town. It runs up to the northward and the outermost part turns towards the shore. However, in mild weather, goods are landed at a creek among the rocks, at the distance of a stone's cast to the southward of the mole, and near the custom-house.

In the way from the mole into the town, there is a square fort on the left hand, named St. Philip's; this is the principal one in the bay. To the northward of it are some forts and batteries mounted with guns, the most considerable of which is named Passo Alto. Near it is a steep rocky valley, which begins at the sea-shore, and runs a great way within land. There are several batteries at the south end of the town, and beyond them, close to the shore, is a fort called St. Juan. All these forts are mounted with cannon, and joined to each other by a thick stone-wall, which begins near the above rocky valley, and continues, with little interruption, to Fort St. Juan. This wall is within only breast-high, but it higher on the out side facing the sea; and from thence to the southward, the shore, being naturally fenced with rocks, is generally inaccessible.

Santa Cruz is a large town, and contains several churches, three convents of friars, an hospital, and the best constructed private buildings of any to be found in the Canary Islands. It is indeed the capital of them all; for though the episcopal see and courts of judicature are in the city of Palmas, in Canaria, the governor-general of the islands always resides in Santa Cruz, where a great concourse of foreigners continually resort, on account of its being the centre of the trade between the Canary Islands with Europe and America. The number of inhabitants are supposed to amount to about five or six thousand. The water drank by them is conveyed into the town in open wooden troughs, from a spring beyond the above-mentioned valley, and there are pits of water, which serve for other purposes, in many of the houses.

Near twelve miles to the southward of Santa Cruz, and close to the sea, there is a cave, with a church or chapel, called Our Lady of Candelaria, in which is a little image of the Virgin Mary, about three feet high, holding a green candle in one hand, and in the other an infant Jesus, who has a gilt bird in each hand. This chapel received its name of Candelaria, from its being pretended, that on the eve of the Purification of the Holy Virgin, a great number of lights are constantly seen going in procession round the cave in which the image is placed; and they assert, that in the morning drops of wax are scattered about the sea-shore. This image is held in the highest veneration, on account of the many miracles it is said to have performed, and her chapel is adorned with so many ornaments, that it is the richest place in all the seven islands. At a certain season of the year, most of the inhabitants of the island go thither in pilgrimage; when troops of young girls march singing, in an agreeable manner,

nor, the praises of the Virgin, and the miraculous deeds the image is said to have performed.

North-westward of the island is the bay of Adexe, or, as it is pronounced, Adehe, where large ships may anchor. On the north-west side is a haven called Garrachica, once the best port in the island; but it was destroyed in 1704, which the natives call the year of the earthquakes, and filled up by the rivers of burning lava that flowed into it from a volcano; so that houses are now built where ships formerly lay at anchor; yet vessels come there in the summer season.

The earthquake above-mentioned began on the twenty-fourth of December; and, in the space of three hours twenty-nine shocks were felt. After this they became so violent as to cause all the houses to shake, and oblige the inhabitants to abandon them. The consternation became universal, and the people, with the bishop at their head, made processions and public prayers in the open fields. On the thirty-first a great light was observed on Manja, towards the White Mountains, where the earth opening, two volcanoes were formed, that threw up such heaps of stones, as to raise two considerable mountains; and the combustible matter continually thrown up, kindled in the neighbourhood above fifty fires.

Things remained in this situation till the fifth of January, and then the sun was totally obscured with clouds of smoke and flame, which continually increasing, augmented the consternation and terror of the inhabitants. Before night, the whole country, for nine miles round, was in flames by the flowing of the liquid fire, with the rapidity of a torrent, into all quarters from another volcano, which had opened by at least thirty different vents within the compass of half a mile. The horror of this scene was greatly increased by the violence of the shocks, which never once intermitted, but by their force entirely overthrew several houses, and shook others to their very foundations; while the wretched inhabitants were again driven defenceless and dismayed into the open fields, where they every moment expected to be swallowed up by some new gulf. The noise of the volcano was heard at sea at twenty leagues distance, where the sea shook with such violence as alarmed the mariners, who at first thought the ship had struck upon a rock. Mean while a torrent of sulphur, and melted ores of different kinds, rushed from this last volcano towards Guimar, where the houses and public buildings were thrown down by the violence of the accompanying shocks.

On the second of February another volcano broke out even in the town of Guimar, which swallowed up a large church. Thus, from the twenty-fourth of December to the twenty-third of February, the people were constantly alarmed by continual shocks of earthquakes, and the terrible volcanoes that burst forth in different parts.

The town of Garrachica is still pretty large, and contains several churches and convents of both sexes. It has a small trade for brandy and wine, which are usually sent from thence in barks, or large open boats, to Santa Cruz, or Port Orotava. Strong and durable ships are also built there, some of which are upwards of three hundred tons burthen.

About six miles to the eastward of Garrachica is the town of Port Orotava, which is a good harbour in the summer season; but in the winter, ships are often obliged to slip their cables and put to sea, for fear of being surprized with a north-west wind, which throws in a heavy sea upon this coast. This is a place of considerable trade, it having flourished greatly since the destruction of the harbour of Garrachica. It contains two churches, two convents of friars, two of nuns, and some good private buildings. At each end of the town is a black sandy bay; along the northernmost is a low stone wall, built to prevent the landing of an enemy: at the other bay is a small castle, or fort, for the same purpose, and at the landing-place between them is a battery of a few cannon: but the surf that continually breaks upon the shore, is the best defence of this port.

The town of La Villa de Orotava, which is about three miles within land from Port Orotava, is a large place, and contains several churches, convents of friars and nuns, with a number of stately stone buildings belonging to private persons. A rivulet, which runs through the midst of it, refreshes their gardens and orchards, and supplies the inhabitants with water.

The city of St. Christobal de la Lagona, that is, St. Christopher of the Lake, extends four miles within land from Santa Cruz. The road to it from the above town is a pretty steep ascent, till within a small distance of the above

town, which is seated in the corner of a plain, about four miles in length, and a mile in breadth. This city is the capital of the island, and contains two parish churches, three convents of friars, two of nuns, and three hospitals; two of which are for the venereal disease, and the other for foundlings. The jesuits have also a house here, and, besides these public structures, there are many handsome private buildings. The water drank by the inhabitants is conveyed in troughs to the city, from the mountains situated to the southward of the plain.

In this city there is not the least show of business, it being chiefly inhabited by the gentry of the island, particularly the officers of justice, such as the corregidor and his tiniente, or lieutenant, the regidores, or cavildo, with the judge of the Indies, who presides in the India-house, where all affairs relating to the West-India commerce are conducted. Here is likewise an office of inquisition, with its proper officer, subject to the tribunal of the Holy Office at Grand Canaria: yet the city appears to a stranger as if desolate and uninhabited; for hardly any body can be seen in the streets, and grass grows in the most frequented places.

There is a laguna, or lake, behind the city, about half a mile in circumference, from which the city takes its name. It is dry in summer, but in winter is full of stagnant water. As this city is situated on a plain, elevated a considerable height above the sea, it is extremely cold in winter, and in all seasons exposed to the wind.

The road descends, from the western extremity of this plain, to La Montanza de Centejo, a large village in the mid-way between Santa Cruz and Port Orotava, chiefly inhabited by peasants and labouring people. Some of the towns belonging to the villages are situated at no great distance from the sea, from whence most of them may be seen, and indeed there are no habitations at a greater distance from each other than three leagues.

The whole island continues to rise on all sides from the sea till it terminates in the pike, which we observed above is in the center. The north-side is the most fertile, and ascends more gradually than the other, particularly a space along the shore about three leagues broad, bounded on the sides by high mountains, or rather cliffs; but it rises upwards from the sea, like a hanging garden, till you come within a league of the clouds, without any considerable intervention of hills and valleys.

A large town, called Realajo is situated in the western border, and La Rambla on the eastern. The towns of Orotava and Port Orotava stood between them, with a number of detached habitations scattered about from the sea-shore upwards to the clouds, in or beyond which there are no houses; yet the clouds are not higher than the middle distance between the sea and the summit of the pike.

All the fertile ground, within a league of the sea, is covered with vines; corn grows in the next league; and, in the third, some corn, woods of chefnut-trees, and many other different sorts of trees. Above these woods are the clouds, which, in fine weather, generally descend gradually towards the evening, and rest upon these woods till the morning, when they re-ascend about a league, and there remain till the succeeding evening. There are several other towns, and many small villages, besides the towns already mentioned.

This island is so populous, that when the last account was taken it contained no less than ninety-six thousand persons, and is supposed to contain as many souls as all the rest of the inhabited islands.

We shall now, for the satisfaction of the curious part of our readers, present them with the relation of a journey up the pike of Teneriff, including a brief account of the weather, and produce of the island. These interesting particulars are extracted from Mr. Glass's history of the Canary Islands, which valuable work is highly deserving the public esteem.

This gentleman begins his narrative with informing us, that "early in the month of September 1761, at about four in the afternoon, he set out on horseback, in company with the master of a ship, to visit the pike. They had with them a servant, a muleteer and a guide; and, after ascending above six miles, arrived towards sun-set at the most distant habitation from the sea, which is in a hollow: here finding an aqueduct of open troughs that convey water down from the head of the hollow, their servants watered the cattle and filled some small barrels to serve them in their expedition.

The gentlemen here alighted, and, walking into the hollow, found it very pleasant, as it abounded with many trees.

trees of an odoriferous smell; and some fields of maize or Indian corn are near the houses. On their mounting again, they travelled for some time up a steep road, and reached the woods and clouds a little before night. They could not miss their way, the road being bounded on both sides with trees or bushes, which were chiefly laurel, fagine, and brush-wood. Having travelled about a mile, they came to the upper edge of the wood, above the clouds, where alighting, they made a fire, and supped; soon after which, they laid down to sleep under the bushes. About half an hour after ten, the moon shining bright, they mounted again, travelled slowly two hours through an exceeding bad road, resembling the ruins of stone buildings scattered over the fields.

After they had passed over this road, they came upon small light pumice-stone, like shingles; upon which they rode at a pretty good pace for near an hour. The air now began to be pretty sharp and piercing, and the wind blew strong from the south-westward. Their guide advised them to alight here, as the place was convenient, and rest till about four or five in the morning. To this they agreed, and entered the cave, the mouth of which was built up to about a man's height to exclude the cold. Near this place were some dry withered retamas, the only shrub or vegetable near the cave, and with these they made a great fire to warm themselves, and then fell asleep; but were soon awaked by an itching occasioned by a cold thin air, want of rest, and sleeping in their cloaths. They here passed away their time as well as they could; but while they crept near the fire, one side was almost scorched, and the other was benumbed with cold. At about five in the morning they mounted again, and travelled slowly about a mile; for the road was rather too steep for travelling quick on horseback, and their beasts were now fatigued.

At last they came among some great loose rocks, where was a kind of cottage built of loose stones, called the English pitching place, probably from some of the English resting here on their way to visit the pike; for none take that journey but foreigners and some poor people who earn their bread by gathering brimstone. There they alighted again, the remainder of their way being too steep for riding, and left one of the servants to look after the horses, while they proceeded on their journey. They walked hard to get themselves warm; but were soon fatigued by the steepness of the road, which was loose and sandy. On their reaching the top of this hill, they came to a prodigious number of large and loose stones, or rocks, whose surfaces were flat, and each of them about ten feet every way.

This road was less steep than the other; but they were obliged to travel a considerable way round, to leap over the rocks, which were not close to each other. Among them is a cavern, in which is a well, or natural reservoir, into which they descended by a ladder placed there by the poor people for that purpose. This cavern is very spacious, it being almost ten yards wide, and twenty in height; but all the bottom, except just at the foot of the ladder, is covered with water, which is about two fathoms deep, and was then frozen towards the inner edges of the cave; but when they attempted to drink of it, its excessive coldness prevented them.

After travelling about a quarter or half a mile upon the great stones, they reached the bottom of the real pike or sugar loaf, which is exceeding steep, and the difficulty of ascending it increased, and was rendered more fatiguing by the ground being loose and giving way under their feet; for though this eminence is not above half a mile in height, they were obliged to stop and take breath near thirty times; and when they at last reached the top, being quite spent with fatigue, they lay about a quarter of an hour to recover their breath, and rest themselves.

In the morning, when they left the English pitching place, the sun was just emerging from the clouds, which were spread under them at a great distance below, and appeared like the ocean. Above the clouds, at a vast distance to the north, they perceived something black, which they conjectured to be the top of the island of Madeira, and, taking the bearings of it by a pocket compass, found it to be exactly in the direction of that island from Teneriff, but before they reached to the top of the pike, it disappeared. They could neither perceive Lancerota nor Fuerteventura from this place, they being not high enough to pierce the clouds; though they could see from hence the tops of the islands of Grand Canaria, Hierro, Palma and Gomera, which seem to be quite near.

After resting for some time, they began to observe the top of the pike, which is about a hundred and forty

yards in length, and a hundred and ten in breadth. It is hollow, and shaped like an inverted bell. From the edges of this bell, or cauldron, as it is called by the natives, it is about forty yards to the bottom, and in many parts of this hollow, they observed smoke and steams of sulphur issuing forth in puffs; and the heat of the ground in particular places was so great, as to penetrate through the soles of their shoes to the feet. On observing some spots of earth, or soft clay, they tried the heat with their fingers, but could not thrust them in farther than half an inch; for the deeper they went, the hotter it was. They then took their guide's staff, and thrust it about three inches deep into a hole or porous place, where the smoke seemed thickest; and having held it there about a minute, drew it out, and found it burnt to a charcoal. They gathered here many pieces of most curious and beautiful brimstone of all colours, particularly an azure blue, violet, scarlet, green, and yellow.

The clouds beneath them, which are at a great distance, made from hence a very extraordinary appearance: they seemed like the ocean, only the surface was not quite so blue and smooth, but had the resemblance of white wool; and where this cloudy ocean, as it may be called, touched the mountain, it seemed to foam like billows breaking on the shore. When they ascended through the clouds, it was dark; but when they afterwards mounted again, between ten and eleven o'clock, and the moon shone bright, the clouds were then below them, and about a mile distant. They then mistook them for the ocean, and wondered at seeing them so near; nor did they discover their mistake till the sun arose. When they passed through the clouds, in descending from the pike, they appeared as a thick fog or mist, resembling those frequently seen in England; with which all the trees of the wood and their cloaths were wetted.

The air was thin, cold, and piercing on the top of the pike, like the south-easterly winds felt in the great desert of Africa. In ascending the sugar loaf, which is very steep, their hearts panted and beat violently, and, as hath been already observed, they were obliged to rest above thirty times to take breath; and this was probably as much owing to the thinness of the air causing a difficulty of respiration, as to the uncommon fatigue they suffered in climbing the hill. Their guide, who was a thin, active old man, was far from being affected in the same manner; but climbed up with ease like a goat; for he was one of the poor men who earn their living by gathering brimstone in the cauldron and other volcanos, the pike itself being no other, though it has not burned for some years; for the sugar-loaf is entirely composed of earth mixed with ashes and calcined stones, thrown out of the bowels of the earth, and the great square stones before described, were probably thrown out of the cauldron, or hollow of the pike, when an eruption happened.

After they had surveyed every thing worthy of notice, they descended to the place where their horses were left, which took them up only half an hour, though they were about two hours and a half in ascending. It was then about ten in the morning, and the sun shone so exceedingly hot, as to oblige them to shelter in the cottage, and being extremely fatigued, they laid down in order to sleep; but were prevented by the cold, which was so intense in the shade, that they were obliged to kindle a fire to keep themselves warm. After this, when they had taken some repose, they mounted their horses about noon, and descending by the same way they went up, came to some pines, situated about two miles above the clouds. Between these pines and the pike, no herb, shrub, tree, or grass can grow, except the before-mentioned retamas.

At about five in the evening they arrived at Orotava, not having alighted by the way to stop, only sometimes to walk where the road was too steep for riding. The whole distance they rode in the five hours spent in coming down from the English pitching place at Orotava, they computed to be about fifteen English miles, travelling at the rate of three miles an hour.

Our author supposes, the perpendicular height of the English pitching-place to be about four English miles, and adding to that a mile of perpendicular height from thence to the pike, observes, that the whole will be about five English miles, and that he is very certain he cannot be mistaken in this calculation above a mile either way." But Mr. Glas may here probably be mistaken, owing perhaps to his not using any instruments proper for ascertaining the exact altitude of this mountain, which is much higher than either the Alps, or the highest part of the Andes, according to this calculation.

In Teneriff, the weather is the same as in Grand Canaria; but the sea-breeze generally sets in at about ten o'clock in the morning on the east and north-east sides of the island, and blows till about five or six in the evening, when it falls calm till midnight. The land wind then begins, and continues till seven or eight in the morning, when it is followed by a calm, which lasts till the sea-breeze returns. In the bay of Santa Cruz, and on all the east-side of the island, the sea-breeze commonly blows at east, and the land-wind at west. On the north-side, the sea-breeze blows at north-east by east, or north-east, and the land-wind directly opposite to it; but there is no land-wind at Point Nago, where the land stretches towards the north-east far into the sea.

At the brow of the hill above Santa Cruz, and at the city of Laguna, a fresh gale blows from the north-west all the time of the sea-breeze, which is occasioned by the mountains almost encompassing the plain. These being so exceedingly high on the south side of it, as to beat back the sea-breeze, and throw it against the mountains that bound the north side of the plain, where finding no passage, it veers to the south-east, and there meeting with no resistance, forces its way with great vehemence through the plain; till coming to the brow of the above-mentioned hill, part of the current of air pours down it towards Santa Cruz, advancing within a mile and a half of the sea, where the true sea-breeze checks it. Yet there is no regular sea or land-breeze on the south-west coast, which is sheltered from the trade or north-easterly wind by the immense height of the pike, which towers above the region of the wind: hence on that side of the island, there is either an eddy-wind at south-west, or a calm.

This island produces nearly the same vegetables as that of Canaria, only there are more vineyards and less corn-land. The wines are strong, good, and very fit for exportation, especially into hot climates, by which they are greatly improved. Formerly a great quantity of Canary sack was made here; but of late years they do not make above fifty pipes in a season; for they now usually gather the grapes when green, and make a dry hard wine of them, which when about two or three years old, can hardly be distinguished from Madeira; but after four years of age it becomes so sweet and mellow, as to resemble the wine of Malaga in Spain. This like all the other Canary islands, affords orchilla-weed in great plenty.

The dragon-tree, aloë, and pine, are natives of Teneriff. The apricot, peach, and pear-trees, bear twice annually. The pregnada, lemon, and lignar wood are found here; as are the cotton-shrub and coloquintida. The rose blows at Christmas; the carnations are large and fine, but tulips will not thrive. The rocks abound with sapphire, the meadows are covered with clover, and the beach produces a broad leaved grass. About fourscore ears of wheat spring from one root, the grains of which are as transparent as the purest yellow amber, and in a good season one bushel will produce a hundred fold; and the barley and maize are not inferior to the wheat.

With respect to the animals, here are plenty of rabbits hogs, wild goats, &c. Quails and partridges are larger than those in England, and extremely handsome. Wood-pigeons, turtles, and crows, abound in the spring. Several sorts of wild-fowl resort hither in the winter season, affording plenty of game to the inhabitants of Laguna. The falcons, or rather strong large hawks, which hover over the lake of Laguna, are thus described by a gentleman who lately travelled to these islands: "I cannot forbear mentioning the haggard falcons that soar every evening about this lake. It is very good diversion to see the negroes fight them with slings; for they often stoop, several at a time; and besides, they are the best mettled hawks in the world, being of a larger kind than the Barbary falcon. The viceroy (governor) being one evening to see the sport, on the author's commending their strength and mettle, assured him upon his honour that a falcon bred in that island, which he had formerly sent to the duke of Larma did at one flight (unless she rested on any ship by the way) pass from Andalusia to Teneriff, which is two hundred and fifty Spanish leagues, and was taken up half dead, having on the vassals and bells belonging to the duke.

Fishes are found in great quantities here, particularly dolphins, sharks, meros, lobsters, mussels, periwinkles, the clacas (which is deemed the best shell-fish in the universe) and the cherna, that exceeds in relish any we have in England: here is also another fish which is called an eel, though with little propriety, for it has seven tails of a span long joined to one body and one head, which are

nearly of the same length. Silk-worms thrive exceedingly; and bees prosper in the rocks and mountains.

The city of Laguna, which stands near a lake about nine miles from the sea, is the principal place in Teneriff: it is called by the Spaniards St. Christoval de la Laguna, or St. Christopher of the lake, and is handsomely built, having two fair parish-churches, and a palace for the governor who resides here. The aldermen of this city pay a certain price to the king to serve their offices of magistrates; but this gives them great power over the inhabitants, who are divided into three classes; namely, gentlemen, merchants, and husbandmen, or, as they are termed by the natives, idlemen, busymen, and labouring-men. The land on each side of the road, leading to Laguna, is in general rocky, but some spots of corn-land are interspersed here and there, and terminated by small vineyards on the sides of the mountains.

This city presents the beholder with an agreeable prospect, as it stands on the side of a hill, and stretches its skirts on the plains behind: it is large, compact, and populous: the houses, though not uniform, have a pleasant appearance; besides the governor's house, and the two parish-churches, here are two nunneries, four convents, an hospital, and some chapels, besides many gentlemen's houses. The convents are those of St. Francis, St. Augustine, St. Dominic, and St. Diego. The churches have pretty high square steeples, which top the rest of the buildings. The streets are not regular, yet they are for the most part spacious, and pretty handsome, and near the middle of the town is a large parade, which has good buildings about it. There is a strong prison on one side of it, near which is a large conduit of good water that supplies all the town.

The inhabitants of Laguna have many gardens that are set round with orange, lime, and other fruit-trees, in the middle of which are pot-herbs, sallading, flowers, &c. and indeed, if the people were curious this way, they might have very pleasant gardens: for the town stands high from the sea, on the brow of a plain that is all open to the east, and has consequently the benefit of the trade wind, which blows here, and is commonly fair; so that there are seldom wanting, at this town, all the day, brisk, cooling, refreshing breezes.

There is a large plain on the back of the town, three or four leagues in length, and two miles broad, producing a thick, kindly sort of grass. On the east side of the plain, near the back of this town, is a natural lake or pond of fresh water; but being stagnant, it is only used for cattle; it is about half a mile in circumference.

The ancient inhabitants of Teneriff were called Guanches, but their origin is not certainly known; they were, and the remainder of them still are, without literature; but their language, which still remains among the remnant of them, bears some affinity to that of the Moors in Barbary; it was formerly very guttural, and entirely different from that used in the other islands. They were of good stature, well made, and had tolerable complexions, but those who dwelt on the north side of the island were much fairer and had lighter hair than those in the south.

These people had some notion of a deity, and held that there was a supreme power, whom they distinguished by the names Achguarergenán, Achoran, and Achaman, which signify the sustainer of the heavens and the earth. They also gave him the titles of the Great, the Sublime, the Maintainer of all: but they did not worship idols, nor had any images of the deity. They believed that God created them of earth and water, and made as many women as men, giving them cattle, and every thing necessary for their subsistence; but that afterwards there appearing to him too few, he created more; but to these last gave nothing; and when they prayed to him for flocks of sheep, and herds of goats, he bid them go and serve the others, who, in return, would give them food. From these, they said, were descended their servants. They had some idea of the immortality of the soul, by supposing the existence of places for future rewards and punishments. In particular, they supposed the pike of Teneriff to contain hell in its bowels, which they termed Echeyda; and gave the name of Guayotta to the devil.

In civil affairs they had some regulators, as each district had a sovereign, whom they thought it their duty to obey as a supreme magistrate. They promised vassalage to him at a certain age, and confirmed the same promise when they happened to marry. The regal succession was hereditary, and all children (except illegitimate) were permitted to reign. The kings, however, as well as the common

mon people, dwelt in caves, and had not the least conception of architecture. One of their kings, named Adexe, ruled the whole island singly for many years, but having several children, they conspired against him, deposed him, and then divided his dominions among themselves. They made war principally for the purpose of stealing cattle from each other, particularly spotted goats, which were highly esteemed, and the remaining Guanches set a great value upon them to this day.

They were very neat and cleanly: always washing their hands and faces whenever they arose from sleep, when they sat down to eat, and after they had eaten. Their food was the flesh of sheep and goats, roasted or boiled, which they ate alone, and not like the Europeans, with bread or roots. They also fed upon barley-meal, roasted and dressed with milk and butter. After eating, they refrained from drink for about half an hour, from the opinion that drinking cold water, immediately after eating warm victuals, spoiled their teeth. Sheep and goats were their only cattle; and wheat and barley, beans and pease their only grain.

The ground was prepared for the seed by the men, who broke it up with a kind of wooden hoes; and the women sowed the seed. When they were in great distress for want of corn, through drought, or any other calamity, they assembled with their children and flocks in certain places set apart for that purpose, where they sat on the ground in a circle, weeping and making a mournful noise; their flocks at the same time bleating for want of food; both men and beasts being debarred from all kinds of sustenance on these occasions; for they imagined that by these means they would appease the wrath of the heavens, and obtain what they stood in need of.

In marriage, they paid no regard to kindred, except that of a brother or sister, but no man had more than one wife. When a man had a mind to marry, all the preliminary ceremonies were, asking the consent of the girl's parents, and, if that was obtained, the marriage was immediately consummated. They had a custom, that in the house or cave, where the husband and wife slept, no other person was allowed to sleep: yet they did not lie together, but in separate beds, which were made of herbs or grass, covered with goats skins, neatly dressed and sewed together, with coverings of the same skins. They could put away their wives when they pleased; but the children of the women, who were born after the parties were divorced, were deemed illegitimate, and could not inherit their father's effects; but, for succession sake, this custom did not extend to the kings.

When a man accidentally met a woman alone, or in a solitary place, he was not to look at, or to speak to her, unless she spoke first, but to him out of the way; and if he made use of any indecent expression, or behaved in an unbecoming manner, he was severely punished. If any person went to the house of another, instead of entering in, he was to sit on a stone at the door, and either to whistle or sing, till somebody came out, and desired him to walk in. Whoever neglected this ceremony, and entered another person's house without being invited, was deemed guilty of a great affront, and liable to punishment. When their children were born, they were washed all over with water by virgins, who were set apart for that office, and never allowed to marry.

Their usual diversions were leaping, running, shooting the dart, throwing stones, dancing, &c. at all which they were extremely expert. The men wore a short coat made of lamb skins, without plait, collar, or sleeves, being fastened together with straps of the same leather, or skins: those of the women were longer, and reached down to their feet, and underneath they had petticoats of the same skins. They lived, died, and were commonly buried in this garment, which was commonly called the tamarca.

In the summer season the king resided in the mountains, but in winter near the sea shore. When he travelled, or went to change his place of residence, the elders of his tribe assembled, and carried before him a staff and a lance, with a kind of flag upon it, to give notice of the king's approach, that all who were travelling upon the same road might pay him the customary homage, by prostrating themselves before him on the ground, wiping the dust from his feet with the corner of their garments, and kissing them. The prince was obliged to marry a person who was his equal; but if such an one could not be found, he took his own sister for wife, for he was not permitted to debase his family by a mixture of plebeian blood.

They had a surprising facility in counting the number of their sheep and goats, when issuing tumultuously out of

a fold, without even pointing to them with their fingers, or moving their lips. Frequent disputes happened among them about their flocks and pastures, which often ended in war. Their offensive weapons were darts made of pitch-pine, sharpened and hardened in the fire, like those used in Grand Canaria; they had also a weapon like a spear, very sharp, and were so dextrous at throwing these, that they scarce ever missed their mark.

At the approach of an enemy they alarmed the country, by making a smoke, or by whistling, which they repeated from one to another: this last method is still in use, and may be heard at an almost incredible distance. They were attended, in their wars, by their women, who brought provisions, carried off their dead, and buried them.

On the death of any person, their friends carried the body to a cave, and stretching it on a flat stone, opened it, and took out the bowels, then twice a day washed the porous parts, that is, the neck, the arm-pits, behind the ears, the groin, and between the fingers, with cold water: after washing it sufficiently, they anointed those parts with sheep's butter, and sprinkled them with a powder made of the dust of decayed pine-trees, and a kind of brush-wood, called by the Spaniards *bressos*, and with the powder of pumice-stone. They then dried the body by extracting from it all its moisture; after which, the relations of the deceased came, and swaddled it in dressed sheep or goat-skins, and girding all tight with leather thongs, they put it in the cave which had been set apart by the deceased for his burying-place. The king could only be buried in the cave of his ancestors, in which the bodies were so disposed as to be known again.

A learned gentleman, who resided several years in the island, tells us, that being one day hunting, a ferret, having a bell about his neck, ran after a coney into a hole, where the sound of the bell was lost. The owner being afraid he should lose his ferret, in seeking about the rocks and shrubs, found the mouth of a cave, and entering it, was so affrighted, that he cried out. His fright arose from one of those corpses, very tall and large, lying with the head on a great stone, the feet supported with a little wall of stone, the body itself resting on a bed of wood. The man, being now a little recovered from his fright, went nearer, and cut off a great piece of the skin that lay on the breast of the body, which was more flexible and pliant than any kid's leather glove, yet not any ways rotten.

Particular persons were set apart for the office of embalming; and there were men to embalm the bodies of the men, and women to perform that office for those of their own sex. During the process, the bodies were watched by the embalmers with the greatest care, to prevent their being devoured by the ravens; the husband or wife of the deceased bringing them provisions, and waiting on them during the time of their watching.

It is said, that not many years ago, two of these embalmed bodies were taken out of a cave; they were entire, and as light as a cork; but quite fresh, and without any disagreeable smell. Their teeth and garments were also fresh and sound. It is observed, that in the poorer sort, to save charges, they took out the brains behind, and sewed them up in skins, with the hair on; whereas the richer sort were put up in skins so finely and exactly dressed, that they remain extremely supple to this day. The bodies found in Grand Canaria, are said not to have been so well embalmed as those in Teneriff, as they are much more consumed, and not so entire in the different parts. Their antient people say, that they have above twenty caves of their kings and great personages, with their whole families, yet unknown to any but themselves, and which they will never discover.

The island of Gomera is situated to the west of Teneriff, in twenty-eight degrees north latitude, and eighteen degrees west longitude from London. It is about thirty miles long, twenty broad, and sixty in circumference. The principal town is seated close to the sea-shore, in the bottom of a bay, where ships lie land-locked from all winds, except the south-east. On the north-side of this bay is a cove, where ships of any burden may haul close to the shore, which is a high perpendicular cliff, and there with safety heave down, clean, and repair. From this cove is a path-way along the face of the cliff to the town; but it is so narrow that two persons cannot walk a-breast. Near the end of this path-way is a gate, which is always shut when it grows dark.

About a stone's cast from the beach the principal street of the town begins, and from thence runs straight within land.

land. The town is called *La Villa de Palmas*, or the town of *Palmas*, from the numbers of palm-trees growing there. There are here a church and convent of friars, with about a hundred and fifty private houses, most of which are small and mean. It is, however, well supplied with good water, which the inhabitants draw from wells in every part of the town. During the winter season, a large rivulet, which then flows from the mountains, discharges its waters into the fort; and on the south side of its mouth stands an old round tower; also on the top of the perpendicular cliff on the north side is a chapel, and the fort has a battery of a few pieces of cannon for its defence.

In this island many rivulets flow from the craggy mountains, which refresh and fertilise the narrow valleys, and indeed water may be found in every part of the island, by digging to the depth of about five feet or upwards.

Gomera produces much the same as the islands of *Teneriff* and *Canaria*. The inhabitants have generally just corn enough for their own use, and seldom import or export any. In this particular it resembles *Canaria*; for it has almost every necessary within itself, and therefore has little need of any thing from abroad; for cattle, fowls, corn, wine, roots, fruit, and honey, are here in great plenty; and if there was sufficient encouragement for the exertion of their industry, the natives could easily manufacture a sufficient quantity of wool and raw silk, to clothe themselves: here is also stone, lime, timber, and all other materials for building, except iron. The wine of this island is in general weak, poor, and sharp; it is therefore unfit for exportation, yet some of it, when two years old, excels the very best wine made in *Madeira*, both in taste and flavour, though it is as clear as water, and as weak as small beer.

The same animals are common here as in the rest of the islands, and also plenty of deer, originally brought from *Barbary*. There are likewise more mules bred in Gomera than in any other of the *Canary* islands, and some snakes; but it does not appear that they are any ways noxious.

With respect to the original natives of the island of Gomera, they were of a lively disposition, of the middle stature, extremely active, and dextrous in attacking and defending, and excellent flingers of stones and darts, to which they were trained from their infancy, it being the common amusement of the young people to cast small stones and darts at each other; to avoid which they seldom moved their feet, but only waved their bodies to and fro; and so expert were they at this sport, that they used to catch in their hands the stones and darts as they flew along.

The antient Gomerans used to dress themselves in a sort of cloak made of goat-skins, which reached to the calf of the leg; but the women were clothed with a petticoat and a head-dress that hung down to their shoulders, both of which were made of goat skins dyed and curiously painted. The blue dye they extracted from an herb which they called *pastil*, and the red from the foot of a tree, which they called *taginaste*: all between the head-dress and petticoat were left bare. They wore shoes made of hog's skins. When the men had any quarrel, which was to be decided by a combat, they laid aside their cloaks, tied a sort of bandage round their waist, and bound their foreheads with a kind of painted turban. In their combats they used the same weapons as the natives of the other islands, which were sticks or poles of hard wood, with the ends sharpened. They have had amongst them several men distinguished by their bravery, whose fame they still celebrate in their ballads.

The island of *Palma* lies in twenty-nine degrees north latitude, and eighteen degrees west longitude, about fifty miles to the west of *Teneriff*, and two hundred west of the continent of *Africa*. It is about thirty miles long, twenty broad, and seventy in circuit.

On the north-east part of the island, within land, is a high and spacious mountain, steep on all sides. This is called *La Caldera*, or the cauldron, from a hollow like that on the pike of *Teneriff*. The summit is about two leagues in circumference, and on the inside the cauldron descends gradually from thence to the bottom, which is a space of about thirty acres. On the declivity of the inside springs several rivulets, which joining together at the bottom, issue in one stream through a passage to the outside of the mountain from which this brook descends; and having run some distance from thence, turns two sugar-mills. The water of this stream is unwholesome, on account of its being mixed with some water of a pernicious quality in the cauldron; all the inside of which

abounds with herbage, and is covered with palms, pitch-pine, laurel, *lignum-rhodium*, and *retamas*; which last have in this island a yellow bark, and grow to the size of large trees; but in the others they are only shrubs. The people here take great care not to let the he-goats feed on the leaves of the *retama*, on account of their breeding a stone in the bladder, which is mortal.

Two rivulets spring on the outside of the cauldron; one of these runs northward to the village of *St. Andrew*, and turns two sugar-mills, and the other runs to the town of *Palmas*, which lies to the eastward. These are the only rivulets or streams of any consequence in the island: on which account the natives build tanks, or square reservoirs with planks of pitch-pine, which they make tight with caulking. These they fill with the torrents of rain-water that in the winter season rush down from the mountains, and preserve it for themselves and cattle: but the sheep, goats, and hogs, in places at a distance from the rivulets, feed almost all the year round on the roots of fern and *aphodil*, and therefore have little or no need of water, there being moisture enough in those roots to supply the want of that element. Though the south part of the island is most destitute of water, yet there is a medicinal well of hot water so close to the sea-shore, that the tide flows into it at full sea.

At *Uguer* is a cave, that has a long narrow entrance, so straight that people pass through it backwards, with their face to the mouth of the cave; but after they have got through this passage, they enter a spacious grotto, where water distils from between the large flakes of slate stones that hang from the roof; the least blow given to these, resounds with a noise like thunder through the cave.

In the district of *Tifuya* is a mountain, which appears to have been removed by an earthquake from its original situation. The natives have a tradition, that the spot on which it now stands was a plain, and the most fertile spot in the whole island, till it was destroyed by the burning lava, and the fall of the mountain. Indeed, the effects of volcanos are to be seen in almost every part of the island; for the channels where the burning matter, melted ores, and calcined stones and ashes ran, may be easily distinguished by a curious observer.

Nunno de Penna, in his *Historical Memoirs*, relates, that on the 13th of November 1677, a little after sun set, the earth shook for thirteen leagues with a dreadful noise, that continued five days, during which it opened in several places; but the greatest gap was upon the mountain of *La Caldera*, a mile and a half from the sea, from whence proceeded a great fire, which cast up stones and pieces of rock. The like happened in several places thereabouts, and in less than a quarter of an hour were twenty-eight gaps about the foot of the mountain, which cast forth abundance of flames and burning stones. The same person adds, that on the 20th of November following, there was a second eruption of the same mount, from whence came forth stones and fire, with great earthquakes and thunders for several days, so that black cinders were taken up at seven leagues distance; the adjacent ground was entirely wasted, and the inhabitants forced to quit their dwellings. The last volcano that happened in this island was in 1750, when one of these rivers of fire ran, with great rapidity, from the mountains towards the town of *Palmas*, and discharged itself about a mile to the northward of the town, but we have not learnt that any considerable eruption hath happened since that time.

If we take a view of *Palma* at the distance of three leagues off at sea, the mountains seem full of gutters or beds formed by torrents of rain water; but these only appear little from their height and distance; for we find them to be large valleys, abounding with woods, on a nearer approach.

In many places on the shore of this and the other islands, is found the black shining sand used to throw upon writing, to prevent its blotting. It appears to have been cast out of volcanos, for the load-stone, when held near it, will draw up every grain of it.

In this island, the air, weather, and winds are nearly the same as at *Teneriff* and *Canaria*, except that the westerly winds and rain are more frequent at *Palma*, on account of its lying more to the westward and northward, and on that account is not so far within the verge of the north-east trade winds as those islands; whence it is particularly exposed to the south wind, which mostly prevails in the latitudes adjacent to those of the north-east trade-winds, as well as to variable winds from other quarters.

The climate here, and in *Teneriff*, *Canaria*, and *Gomera*, differs greatly, according as a person lives in the mountains,

mountains, or near the sea-shore. While there is a calm, the heat seems almost intolerable near the shore, in the months of July, August, and September; but the air is at the same time quite fresh and pleasant on the mountains. In the middle of winter, the houses far up the mountains, near the clouds, are extremely cold, and the natives keep fires burning in their habitations all day long; but this is far from being the case near the sea, for there they use fires only in their kitchens.

The summits of all the Canary Islands, except Lancelota and Fuerteventura, are generally covered with snow for eight months in the year. The summit of Palma formerly abounded with trees, but a great drought in 1545 destroyed them all; and though others began to spring up some time after, they were destroyed by the rabbits and other animals, which finding no pasture below, went up there, and destroyed all the young trees and shrubs, so that the upper part of the island is at present quite bare and desolate. Before the trees and shrubs were destroyed, a great deal of manna fell there, which the natives gathered and sent to Spain. The rabbits were first brought to Palma by Don Pedro Fernandez de Lago, the learned lieutenant-general of Teneriff, and have since increased in a surprizing manner.

Palma affords nearly the same productions as Canaria: but a great quantity of sugar is made here, particularly on the south-west side of the island. Good wines are produced on the east side; they have a different taste and flavour from those of Teneriff: the dry wine is small bodied, and of a yellow colour. These wines are, however, very difficult to preserve, especially when exported to cold climates, where they frequently turn sour. The melvaria, or sack, is not so luscious or so strong as that of Teneriff, but on its being about three years old, it obtains the rich flavour of a ripe pine apple.

They have here so great a plenty of all the kinds of fruit that grows in Teneriff and Canaria, that the natives cannot consume them; but as they have abundance of sugar, they make vast quantities of sweetmeats and preserves, which they export to the Indies, as well as to the neighbouring islands.

A great deal of good honey is produced here by the bees, especially in the hives that are at a great distance from the vines, and the mocares, a fruit that resembles an elder-berry; both these having a bad effect on its colour. In time of scarcity, they make good bread of the roots of corn, which is said to be not inferior to that made of wheat-flour; but the corn of Palma is not esteemed so good as that of Gomera. There is also much gum-dragon, and the natives extract great quantities of pitch from the pitch-pine.

Notwithstanding the destruction that has happened to the trees, which formerly grew on the summit of Palma, there are nevertheless a great number in the region of the clouds, and beneath it; so that at about two leagues distance, the island appears like an entire wood. Pine grows here to such a size, as to be fit for masts of the larger ships; but as they are exceeding heavy, and the roads very rugged, the bringing them to the shore would be attended with a great expence. They have also much the same cattle and poultry as those in the island of Canaria.

The principal port in Palma is called by the same name, and is situated on the south-side of the island. The road is about a quarter of a mile from the shore, where vessels generally ride in fifteen or twenty fathoms water, and are exposed to easterly winds, yet with good anchors and cables they may ride with great safety in all the winds that blow in this part of the world; for the ground is clean and good, and the great height of the island, with the perpendicular rocks that face the road, repel the winds that blow upon it, though ever so strong.

Palma is a large town, containing two parish churches, several convents of friars and nuns, with many neat and private buildings, though they are neither so good nor so large as those in the city of Palmas in Canaria, or of the towns in Teneriff. Near the mole is a castle or battery, mounted with some pieces of cannon, for the defence of the ships in the bay, and to prevent the landing of an enemy. The inhabitants are supplied with plenty of good water, from fountains filled by a rivulet near the great church in the midst of the town.

On the north-east side of the port of Palma lies another, called Tassacorta, but being exposed to westerly winds, it is little frequented by any other vessels than boats: it has a village of the same name.

There are no other towns of any note in Palma; but

many villages, the chief of which is called St. Andrew, where there are four engines for the making of sugar; but the land hereabouts is very poor, so that the inhabitants are supplied from the island of Teneriff with grain and other necessary articles.

SECT. XIV.

Describing the Island of FERRO; its Situation and Extent, Soil, Produce, Animals, &c. also a particular Description of the present Natives of the Islands of CANARIA, TENERIFF, PALMA, GOMERA, and FERRO; with an Account of their Persons, Habit, Diet, Buildings, Manners, Customs, &c.

THE Spaniards call this island Hierro; and the French L'Isle de Fer, the Island of Iron. It is the most westerly of all the Canaries, and lies between the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and in eighteen degrees west longitude from London. It is about thirty miles long, fifteen broad, and seventy-five in circuit. The French navigators formerly placed in the center of this island their first meridian for reckoning the longitude, as the Dutch did theirs at the pike of Teneriff; but at present most geographers reckon their first meridian from the capital of their own country, as the English from London, the French from Paris, &c. it conveying a more distinct idea to say, that such a place is so many leagues distant east or west from the capital of his own country, than to reckon the longitude from a distant land.

Ferro rises on all sides steep and craggy from the sea-shore above a league, so as to render the ascent extremely difficult and fatiguing; but, after travelling thus far, the rest of the island will be found to be tolerably level and fruitful, it abounding in many kinds of trees and shrubs, and producing better grass, herbs, and flowers, than any of the other islands, whence bees thrive and multiply here in a very extraordinary manner, and excellent honey is made by them.

There are but three springs in the whole island. On account of the scarcity of water, it is said that the sheep, goats, and swine of this island, do not drink in the summer; but digging up the roots of the fern, they chew them to quench their thirst. The great cattle are watered at the above fountains, and at a place where water distils from the leaves of a tree.

Many authors have made mention of this tree, some of whom represent it as miraculous; while others deny its very existence: but the author of the History of the Discovery and Conquest of the Canary Islands, gives a particular account of it, which we shall here insert for the satisfaction of the curious.

"In the cliff or steep rocky ascent by which the whole island is surrounded, is a narrow gutter which commences at the sea, and is continued to the summit of the cliff, where it joins, or coincides, with a valley terminated by the steep front of a rock, on the top of which grows a tree called in the language of the antient inhabitants garfe, or sacred, which for many years has been preserved entire, sound, and fresh.

"Its leaves constantly distil so great a quantity of water, that it is sufficient to furnish drink to every living creature in Hierro, nature having provided this remedy for the drought of the island. It is distinct from other trees, and stands by itself: its trunk is about twelve spans in circumference; its height from the ground to the top of the highest branch is forty spans, and the circumference of all the branches together is one hundred and twenty feet. The branches are thick and extended, and the lowest begin about the height of an ell from the ground. Its fruit resembles an acorn, but tastes like the kernel of a pine apple, only it is softer, and more aromatic; and the leaves resemble those of the laurel, but are larger, wider, and more curved. These come forth in a perpetual succession, whence the tree always remains green. Near it grows a thorn, which fastens on many of its branches, with which it is interwoven, and some beech trees, bresos, and thorns, are at a small distance from it.

"On the north side of the trunk are two large tanks or cisterns of rough stone, or rather one cistern divided; each half being twenty feet square, and sixteen spans deep. One of these contains water for the drinking of the inhabitants, and the other that which they use for their cattle, washing, and the like purposes.

"A cloud or mist rises from the sea every morning, which the south and easterly winds force against the above-mentioned

mentioned steep cliff; when the cloud having no vent but by gutter, gradually ascends it, and advances slowly from thence to the extremity of the valley, and then rests upon the wide-spreading branches of the tree, from whence it distils in drops during the remainder of the day, in the same manner as water drips from the leaves of trees after a heavy shower of rain. This distillation is not peculiar to the tree, for the bresos which grow near it, also drop water; but their leaves being only few and narrow, the quantity is so trifling, that though the natives save some of it, yet they make little account of any but what distils from the tree; which, together with the water of some springs, is sufficient to serve the natives and their cattle. It has been remarked, that this tree yields most water in those years when the easterly winds have most prevailed; for by them alone the clouds or mists are drawn hither from the sea.

A person lives near the spot on which the tree grows, who is appointed by the council to take care of it and its water, and is allowed a certain salary, with a house to live in. He daily distributes to each family of the district seven vessels filled with water, besides what he gives to the principal persons of the island."

Mr. Glasf says, he is unable to determine whether the tree which yields water at present be the same here described, but justly observes, that it is probable there have been a succession of them. He himself did not see this tree, for this is the only island of all the Canaries which he did not visit; but he observes, that he has sailed with the natives of Hierro, who, when questioned about the existence of this tree, answered in the affirmative; and takes notice, that trees yielding water are not peculiar to this island, since one of the same kind in the island of St. Thomas, in the gulf of Guiney, is mentioned by some travellers.

By reason of a scarcity of water, the soil in some parts of this island is very barren; but in others it is fertile, and produces all the necessary articles for the support of the inhabitants. The sheep, goats, and hogs, that are brought up in those parts distant from the rivulets, feed almost all the year round, on the roots of fern and asphodil, and therefore have little occasion for water, as the want of that element is supplied by the great moisture that is naturally in those roots.

There is only one small town in this island, and the most distinguished building in it is a parish church. Many small villages are dispersed about the town, but there are not any of them that deserve a particular description.

Small cattle, brandy, honey, and orchilla weed, are the chief articles of the trade carried on by the inhabitants of this island.

With respect to the original natives of the island of Ferro, we are told by travellers, that before it was rendered subject to Spain they were of a middle stature, and cloathed with the skins of beasts. The men wore a cloak of three sheep-skins sewed together, with the woolly side outwards in summer, and next their bodies in winter. The women also wore the same kind of cloak, besides which they had a petticoat, which reached down to the middle of their legs. They sewed their skins with thongs cut as fine as thread, and for needles used small bones sharpened. They wore nothing on their heads, and their long hair was made up into a number of small plaits. They had shoes made of the raw skins of sheep, hogs, or goats.

These people had a grave turn of mind, for all their songs were on serious subjects, and set to slow plaintive tunes, to which they danced in a ring, joining hands, and sometimes jumping up in pairs, so regularly that they seemed to be united; they still practise in Ferro this manner of dancing.

Their dwellings consisted of circular inclosures, formed by a stone wall without cement, each having one narrow entrance. On the inside they placed poles or spears against the wall, one end resting on the top, and the other extending a considerable distance to the ground; and these they covered with fern, or branches of trees. Each of these inclosures contained about twenty families. A bundle of fern, with goat-skin spread over it, served them for a bed, and for bed-cloaths and coverings they used dressed goat-skins to keep them warm.

Before they offered the breast to a new-born child, they gave it fern roots roasted, bruised, and mixed with butter; and at present they give them flour and barley-meal roasted, and mixed with bruised cheese.

The natives usually bake the flesh of sheep, goats and hogs; and as they had no kind of grain, their bread was

made of fern roots, of which, with milk and butter, the principal part of their diet was composed.

One king governed them all; and having never any occasion to go to war, had no warlike weapons: they indeed carried long staves; but these were only to assist them in travelling; for the country being so rocky, as to make it necessary frequently to leap from one stone to another, this they performed by means of these poles.

Polygamy was not allowed; but they had no restrictions with respect to their marriages, except a man's not being allowed to marry his mother or sister; for every man might take the woman he liked best, and whose consent he could obtain, without the least regard to rank or nobility. Indeed all, except the king, were in this respect upon an equality: the only distinction among them consisted in the number of their flocks. It was usual for the man, when he chose a wife, to make a present of cattle to her father, according to his ability, in return for the favour of letting him have his daughter.

The king received no particular tribute from his subjects; and every one made him a present of cattle; for they were not obliged to give him any thing, but according to their pleasure or circumstances.

For a feast, they killed one or two fat lambs, according to the number of their guests: these they placed in a vessel on the ground, sitting round it in a circle, and never rising till they had eaten the whole. These feasts are still continued among their descendants.

If a person fell sick, they rubbed his body all over with butter and sheep's marrow, covering him well up to keep him warm; but when a man happened to be wounded, they burned the part affected, and afterwards anointed it with butter.

They buried their dead in caves; and if the deceased was a man of wealth, they interred him in his cloaths, and put a board at his feet, and the pole he used to travel with at his side; and, in order to prevent his being devoured by ravens, they closed the mouth of the cave with stones.

Murder and theft were the only crimes for which they inflicted corporal punishment. The murderer was put to death in the same manner as he had killed the deceased; and the thief, for the first offence, was punished with the loss of one of his eyes, and for the second, of the other. This was done that he might not see to steal any more. The office of executioner on these occasions, was performed by a particular person set apart for that purpose.

As to their religion, they worshipped two deities, one of whom was male, the other female; the male was named Eraoranzan, and was the object of the men's adoration; the other, worshipped by the women, was called Moneyba. They had no images; or visible representations of these deities; nor did they ever sacrifice to them, but only prayed to them in their necessities, as when they wanted rain to bring up the grass for the subsistence of their cattle, &c. The natives pretended, that when the gods were inclined to do them good, they came to the island, and alighted on two great rocks, which are in a place to which they gave the name of Ventayca, where they received the petitions of the people, and afterwards returned to their celestial abode; these rocks are now called by the Spaniards Los Antillos de los Antiquos, or the hills of the antients.

We shall now, as we proposed, give a particular description of the present natives of Canaria, Teneriff, Palma, Gomera, and Ferro, with an account of their persons, dress, &c. previous to which it will be necessary to observe, that the descendants of this mixed nation are at present denominated Spaniards, whose language is that of the Castilian, which the gentry speak in perfection; but the peasants, in the remote parts of the islands, in an almost unintelligible manner, so that they are scarcely understood by strangers.

The greatest part of the natives are small of stature, well made, and have good features; but they are more swarthy than the inhabitants of the southern parts of Spain; their eyes, however, are fine, large, and sparkling, and their countenances exceedingly expressive; but the old people have a very disagreeable aspect.

Persons of distinction wore in common a camblet cloak of a dark red or black colour, a linen night cap, bordered with lace; and a broad slouched hat. When they pay visits, a coat, sword, and white peruke are added, the latter of which forms a very odd contrast to their dusky complexions, and what is still more singular, they keep their large slouched hat upon their heads always in the house; but when they are out of doors, they carry them

under their arm. Neither do they put on their perukes, upper coats, or swords, but when they walk in procession, pay formal visits, or go to church, on high festivals.

The lower class of people wear their own black, bushy hair, and tuck some of it behind the right ear; and their principal garment is a white loose coat with a friar's cape, and girded round the middle with a sash. This garment is long and narrow, and made of the wool of their own sheep.

Women of inferior rank wear a piece of gauze on their heads, which falls down the shoulders, is pinned under the chin, and covers the neck and breast. A part of their dress is a broad-rimmed flouched hat, but they use this with more propriety than the men; for abroad they wear it upon their heads, whereby their faces are screened from the scorching beams of the sun. They throw a mantle over their shoulders, the goodness of which is in proportion to the condition of the wearer. They wear jackets instead of stays, and are all very fond of a great number of petticoats.

The principal ladies of Grand Canaria and Teneriff dress after the fashion of France and England, and pay visits in chariots: but none walk the streets without being veiled, though some are so careless in the use of their veils, that they take care to let their faces and necks be seen. Some ladies have their hair curiously plaited, and fastened to the crown of their head with a gold comb. Their mantles are very rich, and they wear a profusion of jewels; but they render their appearance ridiculous to strangers, from that clumsiness of dress, and awkwardness of gait, which is observable in both sexes.

The poorer sort of people are afflicted with many loathsome disorders, and are naturally very filthy; the gentry, however, affect great delicacy. Both sexes go every morning to hear mass; and most of them go before they take any refreshment. Their breakfast is usually chocolate: they dine at noon: and shut up the doors till three o'clock. People in good circumstances have four courses brought to table. The first dish consists of soup made of beef, mutton, pork, bacon, potatoes, turnips, carrots, onions, and saffron, stewed together, with thin slices of bread put into the dish. The second course consists of roasted meat, fowls, &c. The third is the olio, or ingredients of which the soup was made. After which comes the desert, consisting of fruit and sweet-meats.

The company drink freely of wine, or wine and water, while at dinner; but have no wine after the cloth is removed. While drinking, their toasts are much like ours. When dinner is over, a large silver dish, filled with water, is set upon the table; when the whole company, all at once, wash in it; and then a servant, who stands at the lower end of the table, cries, "Blessed and praised be the most holy sacrament of the altar, and the clear and pure conception of the most holy virgin, conceived in grace from the first instant of her natural existence. Ladies and gentlemen, much good may it do you!" After which, making a low bow to the company, he retires. They then rise, and each goes to his apartment, to take a nap for about an hour; which proves a great refreshment in this warm climate.

Persons of higher stations have generally a friar for one of their guests, who we may suppose is the confessor to some of the family, and frequently behaves with great rudeness; yet neither the master of the house, nor any of the company, chuse to take much notice of it. Mr. Glass was once invited to dine with a gentleman, where a Franciscan friar made one of the company; but no sooner had they begun to eat, than the friar asked him if he was a christian? He answered, that he hoped so. He was then desired to rehearse the Apostle's creed; but answering, that he knew nothing about it, the reverend father stared full in his face, and exclaimed, "O thou black ass!" Offended at this piece of ill manners, our author asked, What he meant by treating him in that manner? When the friar only answered by repeating the abuse; the master of the house endeavoured in vain to persuade him to give over; but as the person did not at that time understand Spanish so well as to express himself fluently, he arose and left the house, after telling the gentleman, that he saw he was unable to protect him from insults at his own table.

They treat with chocolate and sweet-meats in the morning and evening visits; but in the summer evenings with snow-water. People sup between eight and nine, and retire to rest soon after.

The diet of the common people consists of goshio, fruit, and wine, with salt-fish brought from the coast of Barbary. Some think their being subject to the itch, is owing

to their eating so much of this last food. In the summer season fresh fish is pretty plentiful, but more scarce and dear at other times of the year.

People of rank here have houses two stories high, which are handsome square buildings, of stone and mortar, with an open court in the middle like our public inns in England, and like them have balconies running round, which are on a level with the floor of the second story. The street-door is placed in the middle of the front of the house, and within that door is a second, the space between them being the breadth of the rooms of the house. The court-yard, which is on the inside, is large or small according to the size of the building, and is usually paved with flags, pebbles, or other stones. In the centre of the court is a square or circular stone-wall about four feet high, filled with earth, in which are commonly planted orange, banana, or other trees common in these parts.

The lower story of each quarter of the house consists entirely of store-rooms, or cellars. The stairs leading to the second story usually begin at the right or left hand corner of the entrance of the court, and consist of two flights of steps, which lead into the gallery, from which one may enter any room on the second story. The principal apartments are generally in that quarter of the house facing the street, which contains a hall with an apartment at each end. These rooms are the whole breadth of the quarter, and the hall is twice the length of any of the apartments at its extremities. The windows of these rooms are formed of wooden lattices, curiously wrought; none of them looking inwards to the court; but they are all in the outside wall.

Some great houses have balconies in the middle of the front, on the outside above the gate, equal with the floor of the second story; and some have a gallery which runs from one end of the front to the other, but the outside of the house has seldom any.

They white-wash all the apartments; and those at the extremities of the great halls, with some of the rest, are lined with fine mats about five feet high, and the floor is sometimes covered with the same. The sides of the windows of all the rooms are lined with boards to prevent people's cloaths being whitened; for they commonly sit in the window, there being benches on each side of it for that purpose; and when the master of the house intends to shew a stranger respect, he always conducts him to the window, to converse with him.

The great hall, and the walls of some of the apartments, are hung with paintings, representing the virgin, the twelve apostles, saints, and martyrs, usually drawn as large as life, and distinguished by some circumstance of their history. Thus St. Peter is usually presented looking at a cock and weeping, and a great bunch of keys always hangs at his girdle. St. Anthony preaching to the fishes, is one of their favourite paintings.

Their beds have seldom any curtains, for these they consider as receptacles for fleas and bugs, which abound here extremely. They chiefly use mattresses spread on the floor upon fine mats; besides the sheets, there is a blanket, and above that a silk quilt. The sheets, pillows, and quilt are frequently fringed or pinked, like the shrouds used for the dead with us.

There is a place, in a particular apartment, raised a step higher than the floor, covered with mats or carpets; and there the women generally sit together upon cushions, both to receive visits from their own sex, and give directions concerning their household affairs.

The houses of the peasants and lower sort of people, though only one story high, are built of stone and lime, and the roofs either thatched or tiled. These are generally neat, clean, and commodious. Indeed there is but little dirt or dust in these islands to make them uncleanly; for the ground is mostly rocky, and seldom wet, from the almost continual fine weather.

The deportment of the natives is grave, but at the same time tempered with great quickness and sensibility; the women, in particular, are remarkable for their sprightliness, and vivacity of their conversation, which is said greatly to exceed that of the English, French, or northern nations. The great families in these islands would be highly offended, should any one tell them, they are descended from the Moors, or even from the ancient inhabitants of these islands; yet it would not perhaps be difficult to prove, that most of their customs have been handed down to them from those people. The gentry boast much of their birth; and indeed that they are descended from the best families in Spain, there is no reason to doubt.

They

They have the utmost contempt for the employment of a butcher, taylor, miller, or porter. It is not indeed very surprising, that they should not have any great esteem for the profession of a butcher, or that the employment of a taylor should be considered as somewhat too effeminate for a man; but it is difficult to imagine why millers and porters should be despised, especially the former; but it must be considered that the millers here are generally esteemed great thieves; and as the master of every family sends his own corn to be ground, unless it be narrowly watched, the miller will take too much toll. It is said that when any criminal is to suffer death, and the executioner happens to be out of the way, the officers of justice have the power of seizing the first butcher, miller, or porter they can find, and of obliging him to discharge that office; such is their dislike to persons of these occupations.

It may not be amiss to mention a circumstance given us by Mr. Glass, who once touching at the island of Gomera to procure fresh water, hired some poor ragged fishermen to fill the water casks, and bring them on board; but some time after, going to the watering place to see what progress they had made, he found the casks full, and all ready for rolling down to the beach, with the fishermen standing by, and talking together, as if they had nothing farther to do. He reprimanded them for their laziness in not dispatching the business in which he had employed them; when one of them, with a disdainful air, replied, "What do you take us to be, Sir? Do you imagine we are porters? No, Sir, we are seamen." Notwithstanding all his intreaties and promises of reward, he was unable to prevail upon any of them to roll the casks to the water side; but was at last obliged to hire porters, to do the business.

The gentry of these islands, though for the most part poor, yet are extremely polite and well bred; the very peasants and labouring people have a considerable share of good manners, with little of that surly rusticity which is too common among the lower class of people in England; yet they do not seem to be abashed in the presence of their superiors. A beggar asks charity of a gentleman, by saying "For the love of God, Sir, please to give me half a rial," and if the other gives him nothing, he returns, "For the love of God, I beg your worship's pardon," and then departs.

The common people and servants here are much addicted to private pilfering, for which they are usually punished by being discharged the service, beaten, or imprisoned for a short time. Highway robberies are seldom or ever known; but murder is more common than in England: and they have no notion of duels, for they cannot imagine that because a man has the courage to fight, he thereby atones for the injury done to another, or that it ought to give him a right to do him a greater.

When the murderer has killed a man, he flies to a church for refuge, till he can find an opportunity to escape to another island; and if he had been greatly provoked or injured by the deceased, and did not kill him designedly, every body will be ready to assist him to escape, except the near relations of the person who has lost his life, yet quarrels are far from being frequent here, which may be owing to the want of taverns and other public houses, their polite behaviour, the little intercourse there is between them, and their temperance in drinking.

People of the lower class never fight in public, but if one person puts another into a violent passion, the injured party, if able, takes his revenge in the best manner he can, till he thinks he has had satisfaction, without any regard to the equity of the method he uses for this purpose.

The inhabitants of the Canary islands are in general extremely temperate; or at least, if they are otherwise, it is in private only; for nothing can be a greater disgrace there, than to be seen drunk; and a man who can be proved a drunkard, is not permitted to give evidence, or take his oath, in a court of judicature. Hence those that are fond of liquor, intoxicate themselves in their chambers, and then lie down, in order to sleep till they are sober.

Persons of all ranks in these islands are extremely amorous; but their notions of love are pretty singular; which may perhaps be attributed to the want of innocent freedom between the sexes. However, they do not seem to be inclined to jealousy, any more than the English or French. It is usual for young people here to fall in love at sight; and if the parties agree to marry, but find their parents averse to their union, they complain to the curate of the parish, who goes to the house where the girl lives, and

endeavours to persuade them to agree to her marriage; but if they refuse to consent to their union, he takes her away before their faces, without their being able to hinder him, and either places her in a convent, or with some of her relations, where she must remain till they consent to her marriage.

We are told, that a lady will sometimes send a man an offer of her person in an honourable way; if he declines it, he keeps the matter secret till death; should he do otherwise, he would be looked upon by all people in the most despicable light. Young men are not allowed to court the youth of the other sex without an intention to marry them; for if a woman can prove that a man has, in any instance, endeavoured to engage her affections, she can oblige him to marry her. This, like many other good laws, is abused; for loose women taking advantage of it, frequently lay snares to entrap the simple and unwary; and sometimes worthless young men, form designs upon the fortunes of ladies, without having the least regard for their persons: there are not, however, many mercenary lovers in this part of the world, their notions in general being too refined and romantic to admit the idea of that passion being made subservient to their ambition or interest; and yet there are more unhappy marriages here than in the countries where innocent freedoms being allowed between the sexes, lovers are not so blinded by their passions, as not to perceive the frailty and imperfections of their mistresses.

On the death of a man's wife, it is usual for some of his relations to come to his house, and reside with him for some time, in order to divert his grief, and do not leave him till another relation comes to relieve the first, the second is relieved by a third, and thus they succeed each other for the space of a year.

Each of the Canary islands, as well as every town and family, hath a peculiar tutelary saint for its patron, whose day is celebrated as a festival, by a sermon preached in honour of the saint, and a service suited to the occasion. On these days, the street near the church is strewed with flowers and leaves, a multitude of wax candles are lighted, and a considerable number of fireworks played off.

A kind of fair is generally held on the eve of these festivals, to which the people of the adjacent country resort, and spend the greatest part of the night in mirth and dancing to the sound of the guitar, accompanied with the voices not only of those who play on that instrument, but by those of the dancers. The dances practised here are sarabands and folias, which are slow dances; those which are quick are the canario, first used by the Canarians; the fandango, which is chiefly practised by the vulgar; and the rapetes, which nearly resembles our hornpipe. Some of these dancers may be termed dramatic, as the men sing verses to their partners, who answer them in the same manner. Most of the natives of these islands can play on the guitar, and they have in general excellent voices.

Plays are acted in the streets for the entertainment of the populace, at the feasts of the tutelary saints of Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma; but the performers cannot be supposed to rise to any degree of perfection, as they are not professed actors, but only some of the inhabitants of the place who seem to have a natural turn for acting.

The gentry frequently take the air on horseback; but when the ladies are obliged to travel, they ride on asses, and instead of a saddle they use a kind of chair, in which they sit very commodiously. The principal roads are paved with pebble-stones, like those used in the streets of London. There are a few chariots in Canaria, the town of Santa-Cruz, and the city of Laguna in Teneriff; these are all drawn by mules, but they are kept rather for show than use; for the roads are not proper for wheel carriages, being steep and rocky.

The lower class of people divert themselves with dancing, singing, and playing on the guitar; likewise with throwing a ball through a ring placed at a great distance, cards, wrestling, and quoits. The peasants, particularly those of Gomera, have the art of leaping from rock to rock when they travel, which is thus performed: the long staff or pole used on these occasions, has an iron spike at the end of it, and when a man wants to descend from one rock to another, he aims the point of the pole at the place where he intends to alight, and then throws himself towards it, pitching the end of the pole so as to bring it to a perpendicular, and then slides down it to the rock on which he fixed it.

In the convents, children are taught reading, writing, Latin, arithmetic, logic, and other branches of philosophy. The scholars read the classics; but the Greek is never

never taught here, and is entirely unknown even to the students in divinity. They are particularly fond of civil law and logic, but the latter is chiefly preferred.

The people belonging to these islands have a genius for poetry, and compose verses of different measures, which they set to music. Some of their songs, and other poetical pieces, would be greatly esteemed in a country where taste for poetry prevails. Few of those books called profane (to distinguish them from those of a religious kind) are read here, since they cannot be imported into the island without being first examined by the inquisition; a court which nobody cares to have any concern with. The history of the wars in Granada is in every body's hands, and is read by people of all ranks; they have also some plays, most of which are very good. Thomas a Kempis, and the Devout Pilgrim, are in every library, and much admired. But the books most read by the laity are the Lives of the Saints and Martyrs, which may be considered as a kind of religious romances, stuffed with legends, and the most absurd and improbable stories.

With respect to the civil government of the islands of Canaria, Teneriff, and Palma, which are called the king's islands, it will be proper to observe, in the first place, that the natives, on their submitting to the crown of Spain, were so far from being deprived of their liberty, that they were put on an equality with their conquerors, in which the Spaniards shewed great wisdom and policy; but how they came afterwards to act in a quite contrary manner in America, is hard to determine; perhaps they might be apprehensive, that if they proceeded with too much rigour against them at first, they might in time be induced to shake off the yoke, and dispossess their tyrannical masters, which we are informed, by late events, has proved to be the case in South America, as the following piece of intelligence, published in September 1782, announces: "You have repeatedly heard it reported, that there was a rebellion in Chili and Peru, in South America; and though the Spaniards do all they can to keep it a secret, I can assure you, from undoubted authority, that all the mines in Peru and the city of Pez, which is situated in the interior parts of the country, where they lodged their bars of gold and silver, and other valuables, are taken from them, and there were one hundred and fifty millions of piastres taken out of the strong chests. The natives will very soon have the whole country in their possession, for they destroy every white man, woman, and child, and even kill every one begot between a Spaniard and a native." But to return. After the conquest of the Canary Islands, the Spaniards incorporated with the natives in such a manner as to become one people with them, and in consequence of this political union, the king of Spain is able to raise in these islands more soldiers and seamen than in any other part of his dominions of three times their extent.

The alcalde, who is a justice of peace, is the lowest officer except the alguazils; there is one of them in every town or village of note. These magistrates are appointed by the royal audience of the city of Palmas, in Canaria; they hold their places only for a certain time, and, in cases of property, can take cognizance of no disputes where the value of what is contended for exceeds seventeen rials, or seven shillings sterling. Over these magistrates is the alcalde major, who is appointed in the same manner as the other, and cannot decide any case relating to property, that exceeds the sum of two hundred dollars.

From the decision of those magistrates, appeals lie to the tiniente and corregidor: the first of whom is a lawyer, and nominated by the royal audience; but the latter, who is appointed by the king, is not obliged to be a lawyer, yet must have a secretary, clerk, or assistant bred to the law. The corregidor generally holds his place five years, and sometimes longer. Few of the natives enjoy this honourable office, which is commonly filled by Spaniards.

The proceedings of the corregidor's court, and in that of the tiniente, are the same; these courts seeming to have been originally intended as a check upon each other. Appeals are made from the corregidor and tiniente to the royal audience of Grand Canaria; a tribunal composed of three oidores, or judges, a regent, and fiscal, who are usually natives of Spain, and are always appointed by the king. The governor-general is president of this court, though he resides in Teneriff. In criminal causes there is no appeal from their determination; but appeals are carried to the council or audience of Seville in Spain, in matters respecting property.

In the Canary Islands, the standing forces amount only to about an hundred and fifty men; but there is a militia of which the governor-general of the island is always commander in chief, and the officers, as colonels, captains, and subalterns, are appointed by the king. There are also governors of forts and castles, some of which are appointed by the king, and others by the twelve regidors of the islands, called the cavildo; some of the forts belong to the king, and the rest are under the direction of the regidors, or sub-governors, who also take care of the repair of the highways, prevent nuisances, and the plague from being brought into the island by shipping; for no man is allowed to land in these islands from any ship, till the master produces a bill of health from the last port, or till the crew have been examined by the proper officers.

The royal revenue arises from the following articles: A third of the tithes, which scarcely amounts to a tenth part of them, the clergy appropriating almost the whole to themselves. This third part was given by the pope to the king of Spain, in consideration of his maintaining a perpetual war against the infidels. The second branch consists in the monopoly of tobacco and snuff, which the king's officers sell on his account, no other persons being allowed to deal in those articles. Another branch of the revenue arises from the orchilla-weed, all of which in the islands of Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma, belong to the king, and is part of his revenue; but the orchilla of the other islands belongs to their respective proprietors. The fourth branch consists of the acknowledgment annually paid by the nobility to the king for their titles, which amounts to a mere trifle. The fifth branch is a duty of seven per cent. on imports and exports: and the sixth duty on the Canary West India commerce. All these branches, the sixth excepted, are said not to bring into the king's treasury above fifty thousand pounds per annum, clear of the expences of government, and all charges relating thereto.

S E C T. XV.

Containing an Account of the Manufactures and Commerce of the Islands of CANARIA, TENERIFF, PALMA, GOMERA, and FERRO; also of their Fishery on the Coast of BARBARY, their Ecclesiastical Government, and the Coins, Weights, and Measures used in the Canary Islands.

WITH respect to the manufactures of the islands in general, they consist of taffeties, knit silk hose, silk garters, and quilts for beds. In Canaria and Teneriff, coarse linens and gauzes are made of the flax imported from Holland. In Canaria are also made white blankets and coarse cloths, from the wool of their own sheep. The rest of the islands also make a coarse kind of cloth, which is worn by the peasants; but on festivals, weddings, &c. the labouring people usually wear English coarse cloth. The exportation of raw silk is now prohibited, in order to encourage their silk manufactures. In the large towns men are employed in weaving, and as tailors; but those trades are exercised in the villages only by the women.

We may divide the commerce of the Canary Islands into these proportions following; namely, that to Europe, and to the English colonies in America; that to the Spanish West Indies; that carried on between the islands themselves, and the fishery on the Barbary coast.

The islands of Ferro and Gomera are so poor, as to be visited by no ships from Europe or America; nor are the natives of those islands allowed any share of the Spanish West India commerce; they being not entirely under the jurisdiction of the crown of Spain, but subject to the count of Gomera, who is the lord and proprietor of them.

The island of Teneriff is the centre of the trade to Europe, and the British American colonies. A few ships trade to Canary and Palma, but these are not to be compared to the numbers that arrive at Teneriff. This trade is carried on entirely in foreign bottoms, especially in English, the natives being afraid of sailing in those seas where they are in danger of being taken by the corsairs of Algiers, Sallee, and other ports of Barbary. The greatest part of this trade is in the hands of the Irish Roman Catholic merchants settled in Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma, and the descendants of the Irish who formerly settled there, and married Spanish wives; and, the English and Dutch consuls, and two or three merchants who live at Teneriff, are the only protestants who reside there.

The commodities imported from Great Britain to these islands consist chiefly of woollen goods of various kinds, hats, hard-ware, red-herrings, pilchards, and wheat when it is scarce in the islands, with many other articles. They import from Ireland beef, pork, pickled-herrings, butter, and candles. From Holland and Hamburgh, linens of all sorts, to a very great amount, are imported; also gunpowder, cordage, coarse flax, and other goods. From Biscay, a considerable quantity of bar iron is annually brought hither.

The articles they import from Majorca, Italy, Barcelona, Cadiz, and Seville, consist chiefly of velvets, silks, oil, salt, and cordage made of bals or spartrem, with many little articles for the consumption of the Canary islands, and the Spanish West Indies. This trade is almost entirely carried on in the French and Maltese tartans.

The Maltese vessels, before they sail to these islands, make the tour of all the European harbours to the westward of Malta, trading from one part to the other. They go from the Mediterranean to Cadiz, and from thence to the Canaries, where, besides the commodities of Italy, France, and Spain, they sell the cotton manufactures of their own island; all cottons, imported into the Canary islands, except those from Malta, paying such an exorbitant duty as almost amounts to prohibition. The people of Malta have engaged to wage perpetual war with the Turks and Moors, which is the reason that this privilege is allowed them.

From the British colonies in America they import, dried cod, rice, beef, pork, hams, bees-wax, deal boards, pipe staves, and wheat, flour, and maize, when the crops in the island fail.

Those islands, in return for the above goods, export to Great Britain and Ireland, wine, orchilla-weed, campeachy wood, and a considerable quantity of Mexican dollars. The same articles to Holland and Hamburgh; but a greater quantity of dollars, and little or no orchilla-weed. To Marseilles, Malta, Italy, and Spain, they send the commodities they receive from the Spanish West Indies, particularly sugar, hides, Campeachy log-wood, some orchilla-weed, and dollars: they export a great quantity of wine, but no other articles, to the British colonies in America.

The above goods in general pay a duty of seven per cent. on the estimated value, whether they are imported into, or exported from these islands.

There are particular regulations, to which the commerce of the Canary islands with the Spanish settlements in the West Indies are subject, and no foreigners are allowed to have any share in it; nor are any ships suffered to sail to the Spanish ports of that part of America, from any of the islands except Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma; and the trade there is confined to the ports of the Havannah, Campeachy, and La Guaira on the coasts of Caraccas, St. Domingo, Porto Rico, and Maracaroa: the three first are called the greater parts, and the others the lesser, because the trade of the latter, when compared with that of the former, is very inconsiderable.

Every thing relating to this trade is managed by a judge, a secretary, and other officers, who reside in the city of St. Christobal La Laguna; and before a ship takes in her loading for any of their ports, she must obtain a licence from the judge of the India trade, which is generally granted, if it be her turn; for although interest and money are frequently found to prevail against justice, yet this is not the case here, for all ships are registered, and must have their turns.

The produce of the Canaries constitute the whole of their trade to the Spanish West Indies; such as, wines, brandy, almonds, raisins, figs, &c. of which they can annually send one thousand tons; and are only allowed, besides, what is termed a general for each ship, which consists of all kinds of goods thought necessary for the use of the vessel, crew, and passengers, during the voyage; and is more or less extensive in proportion to the size of the ship. But though they are restricted by these rules, this trade is extended much farther; and it is said they export at least two thousand tons of the produce of the islands, and also European commodities to a very great amount.

The imports from the West Indies into these islands consist of commodities of the ports from whence they came, and are chiefly logwood, hides, cocoa-nuts, sugar, and Mexican dollars; all which they are obliged to land at Santa Cruz, in Teneriff, but cochineal and indigo are prohibited from being landed there. The silver they bring is limited to fifty Mexican dollars per ton, according to the registered tonnage; yet some of these ships are said to bring home a hundred and twenty dollars to Teneriff.

There are commonly employed in this trade ships of about two hundred and fifty, or three hundred tons burthen. Some of them are built in the islands, and others at the Havanna, or Old Spain. No foreign bottoms can be employed in this trade; for which reason the freight from the Canaries to the West Indies is extremely high; for the Canary shipping carry so many useless hands, particularly chaplains; lie so long in the road of Santa Cruz, waiting their returns; and are at such vast expence of anchors and cables, that the owners cannot afford to take less freight for a pipe of wine, from the Canaries to La Guaira, than ten pounds sterling; and yet the run from Teneriff to that port being all the way before the wind, is usually performed in less than thirty days: yet our author observes, that were the natives allowed to employ English ships in this trade, they would soon find a sufficient number ready to carry their wine at the rate of twenty shillings for each pipe of it.

The trade carried on from one island to another, is as follows: The natives of Canaria export to Teneriff some raw and wrought silk, coarse woollen blankets, provisions of all sorts, particularly cattle and fowls, orchilla-weed, square flags for pavements, some salt, and filtering-stone vessels for purifying water. In return for these commodities, they chiefly receive cash, and the other produce of the Spanish West Indies. Palma exports to Teneriff boards, pitch, raw silk, orchilla weed, sugar, almonds, and sweet-meats; and receives in return European and West India goods. The natives of Gomera export to Teneriff cattle, brandy, orchilla-weed, a great deal of raw silk and some wrought, and in return receive European and West India goods. The inhabitants of Ferro export to Teneriff cattle, brandy, orchilla-weed. Lancerota and Fuerteventura export a great quantity of corn to Teneriff, besides cattle, fowls, and orchilla-weed; and, in return, generally receive European goods and cash, with some wine. The natives of the same islands send corn to Palma, for which they receive sugar, wine, cash, boards, and other timber. The natives of Lancerota also export to Teneriff and Palma some dried fish and salt.

The vessels employed in this trade are built in the islands, and are from twenty to fifty tons burthen; they are about twenty-five in number, and each of them navigated by ten hands, on account of the great labour required in loading and unloading.

The fishery here is carried on by the natives of the Canary Islands on the coast of Barbary. It employs about thirty vessels, from fifteen to fifty tons burthen, the smallest carrying fifteen men, and the largest thirty. The owners having fitted out a vessel for this voyage, put on board a quantity of salt sufficient to cure the fish, with bread enough to serve the crew till their return. Each man has his own fishing tackle, which consists of a few lines, hooks, one or two stout fishing rods, a little brass wire, and a knife for cutting open the fish. If any of the crew carry wine, brandy, flesh-meat, or any other stores, it must be at his own expence; for only bread is provided by the owners.

On the north, this fishery is bounded by the southern extremity of Mount Atlas, in the latitude of twenty-nine degrees; and on the south, by Cape Blanco, in the latitude of twenty degrees thirty minutes; an extent of about six hundred miles; in all which tract there is neither town nor village, and but few settled habitations. The wandering Arabs who frequent this part of the world live in tents, and have neither barks, boats, nor canoes; and the king of Morocco's cruisers never venture so far to the southward.

As soon as the fishermen arrive on the coast, they endeavour to catch bait, which is done as we do trouts with a fly, only the rod is three times as thick as ours, and does not taper so much towards the point. The line is formed of six brass wires twisted together; the hook is about five inches in length, and is not bearded; the shaft is loaded so as to lie horizontally on the surface of the water, and the hook is covered with a fish's skin, except where it bends to the point. The fishermen getting within a quarter or half a mile of the shore, carry so much sail as to cause the bark to run about four miles an hour, when two or three men throw their lines over the stern, and let the hooks drag along the surface of the water. The fish taking the hooks for small fish, snap at them; and they are no sooner hooked, than the fishermen swing them with their rods into the bark.

The Canarians call these fish tassarte; they have no scales, and are shaped like a mackarel, but are as large as a salmon; and they are so voracious, as to swallow all the

hook,

hook, notwithstanding its being so large; and was it bearded, it would be impossible to extract it, without cutting open the fish. Three men, in the stern of a bark, have been seen to catch a hundred and fifty taffarte in half an hour, and a bark will sometimes complete her lading with these fish only.

Another sort of fish which they call anhoua is taken in the same manner; this is rather bigger than a large mackarel, and also serves for a bait; as does also another fish called cavallos, which is shaped like a mackarel, but is somewhat more flat and broad; it is about a span long, and is caught with an angle-rod and line, with a very small hook, baited with almost any thing that can be procured.

As soon as a bark has obtained a sufficient stock of bait, she leaves her boat with five or six men to catch more, and runs out to sea till she gets into a great depth of water; there she anchors, and all the crew heave their lines and hooks over-board, baited with the above fish, in order to catch bream and cod. The lines are loaded so as to cause the hooks to sink near the bottom of the sea, where these fish swim; and when a bark meets with fine weather, and is well provided with bait, she will be able in four days to complete her cargo.

The fishermen make but one meal in the whole day, which is in the evening, after they have cleaned and salted the fish they have taken; they then dress their supper in the following manner. In every bark the crew have a long flat stone for a hearth, upon which they light a fire, and hang a large kettle over it, in which they boil some fish: they then take a platter, with some broken biscuit, onions shred small, to which they add pepper and vinegar, and then pour in the broth of the fish, which is said to be delicious. Having eaten of this excellent soup, they finish their meal with roasted fish; for they throw that of which the soup was made into the sea. Soon after this repast they lie down to sleep in the most commodious part of the vessel, for they have no bedding, and about five or six in the morning rise, leave the boat near the shore, weigh anchor, and stand out to sea as before, never tasting food before the next evening, at the same time.

Their cargoes consist chiefly of large bream, nevertheless, they catch many other sorts. The taffarte, just mentioned, is a delicious fish, which tastes like a large and fat mackarel; but, when dried, is not to be distinguished from salmon. The cod caught here is better than that of Newfoundland: the anhoua is extremely good; the corbino is a large fish that weighs about thirty pounds. There are also a number of flat fish, with many others of various kinds.

They cure them by the following method: after cutting them open, and having thoroughly cleaned and washed them, they chop off their heads and fins, and pile them up to drain off the water; after which they are salted, and stowed in bulk in the hold, and in this state they remain till fit for use.

"It is strange, says a judicious author, to think that the Spaniards should want to share the Newfoundland fishery with the English, when they have one much better at their own doors. I say better, for the weather here, and every thing else, concurs to make it the best fishery in the universe. What can be a stronger proof of this, than the Moors on the continent drying and curing all their fish without salt, or any other process than exposing them to the sun-beams? For the pure wholesome air of that climate, and the strong northerly wind which almost constantly prevails on this coast, totally prevents putrefaction, provided the fish are split open, well washed, and then perfectly dried in the sun."

The barks used by the Canarians make eight or nine voyages in a year; for, having unloaded their cargoes, they leave the fish with their agents to sell them at their leisure, while they go in search of more. They are commonly sold at three half pence for a pound of thirty-two ounces, which is the weight used for fish and flesh in these islands.

The magistrates, instead of encouraging this useful and profitable branch of trade, take every method to injure it, by fixing the price of the fish, clogging the trade with unreasonable duties, and forbidding the fishermen to have any intercourse with the Moors on the coast, where they sometimes go to fish; which is a great hardship, as they are frequently obliged, when they meet with bad weather, to go ashore for fuel and water. They correspond, however, privately to their mutual advantage: for the Canarians give the inhabitants of the desert old ropes, which the latter untwist and spin into yarn or twine for fishing-nets;

they also give them bread, potatoes, onions, and many kinds of fruit; in return for which the Moors make them presents of ostrich's eggs and feathers, and allow them to take wood and water on their coast, whenever they are in want of those necessary articles.

With respect to the ecclesiastical government of the Canary Islands in general, it must be observed, that the bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Seville, in Spain, and has a revenue of six thousand pounds sterling per annum. He resides in the city of Palma, in Canaria, where he is treated with as much respect and homage as a sovereign prince. The superior of the various orders of friars and nuns resides in the city of St. Christobal de la Laguna, and are only accountable to the generals of their respective orders at Rome.

There is a house in each of the islands belonging to the inquisition, with its proper officers, in order to prevent all appearances of heresy or disrespect to the clergy. They have power to apprehend and confine suspected persons, without giving any reason for it to the civil magistrates; and, after examining them, they are either sent to the tribunal at Canaria, or discharged.

On the arrival of any foreign ships at the islands, the first time the master goes ashore, he is conducted to an officer of the inquisition, who examines him whether he has any books or pictures in his ship against the doctrine or ceremonies of the church of Rome? and he is obliged to sign a paper, by which he engages, if he has any, not to land or expose them to view; and that, while he remains in the country, he will neither speak against the Romish religion, nor ridicule its rights and ceremonies. As all the natives are zealous members of the Romish church, this tribunal has seldom an opportunity of exercising its extensive authority over them.

The gentry are generally poor, and unable to give fortunes to their younger sons and daughters, many of the former being educated for the church; and not a few young ladies shut themselves in convents for life, because they cannot find husbands suitable to their rank, and are unwilling to depend upon their elder brothers, or other relations, for subsistence: others take the same step from their having met with disappointments in love; and a few take the veil from religious motives, being flattered by the nuns and clergy into a high conceit of their own sanctity.

In these islands the priests are far from being satisfied with their tithes, or the friars with the revenues of their convents, and have therefore found means to load the inhabitants with many impositions, which, though not established by law, it would be dangerous for them to presume to refuse paying. Thus every fishing-bark from the coast of Barbary is obliged to deliver a certain quantity of fish to each convent; and when the Mendicant friars go begging from house to house, they are liberally supplied; and, was any to refuse giving them alms, they would be marked out as objects of their vengeance, and be exposed to the inquisition. In short, all ranks of men, who have any great point in view, take care, in the first place, to secure in their interest the leading men of the clergy: and it is easy to surmount every other obstacle when this is accomplished.

As the Catholics of these islands seem to think, that all excellence is confined to those of their religion; therefore when they see any of a different persuasion behave with common decency, they appear greatly surprised, imagining that those they call heretics differ but little from brutes. Such is the prevalence of superstition and bigotry over the minds of the ignorant!

The Mexican dollar, and the half, quarter, eighth, and sixteenth parts of a dollar, are the current coin in the Canaries. There is also the provincial rial of plate, which is a small silver piece worth five-pence sterling; also the quart, a copper coin of the value of an halfpenny; ten of which make a rial of plate. The provincial silver coin is never exported, on account of its passing in the islands for more than its intrinsic value. Accounts are kept in imaginary money, that is, current dollars of ten rials of vellon each. The rial of vellon is equal in value to eight of the above quarts, and the current dollar is exactly three shillings and four-pence, and therefore six of them make one pound sterling. Three sixteenths of the Mexican dollar pass for two rials of plate. Gold coin is very scarce here.

The quintil, which is their hundred weight, weighs only an hundred and four pounds. The arroba is twenty-five pounds. The pound and smaller weights are nearly the same as those in Europe.

The

The following are the measures used in the Canaries; namely, the fanega or hanega, the almud, the liquid arroba, the quartillo, and the var. The fanega is a measure for corn, cocoa, salt, &c. and contains nearly the quantity of two English bushels. Twelve almuds make a fanega. The liquid arroba contains little more than three gallons, and the quartillo is nearly the same as our quart. The var (which is somewhat less than the English yard) is a measure for cloth, &c.

We have now completed our description of the Canary Island, but cannot with propriety conclude this section, without first giving a concise account of the islands or rocks named the Salvages, which lie between the Canaries and Madeira.

These islands are situated twenty-seven leagues north from Point Nago in Teneriff, in thirty degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in sixteen degrees twenty-five minutes west longitude from London; the most considerable of which is high and rocky, and is about three miles in circumference. Three or four leagues to the south-west of this island is another, not unlike the largest Needle rock at the west end of the Isle of Wight. Between these islands are a considerable number of rocks and sands, some above and others under water, so that it is dangerous for those unacquainted with these islands to approach them, except on the east side of the great island, which produces nothing but orchilla-weed.

There are great numbers of cormorants, or sea fowls that nearly resemble them. Some barks and boats belonging to the Canary Islands frequent the Salvages in the summer season, in search of wrecks, and those sea fowls, for they catch the young in their nests, kill and salt them, and afterwards dispose of them at Teneriff.

These islands, though uninhabited, are claimed by the Portuguese, who consider them as dependent on the island of Madeira, and, notwithstanding they scarcely ever visit them, will not allow the Spaniards to gather orchilla-weed there. A few years ago some fishermen went in a bark from Teneriff to these islands in quest of wrecks, but finding none, went ashore, and gathered about half a ton of orchilla-weed. But this was no sooner known at Madeira, than the Portuguese complained of it to the governor-general of the Canary Islands, and would not be satisfied till the master of the bark was thrown into prison, where he was a long time confined.

S E C T. XVI.

Of the MADEIRA or MADERA ISLANDS; their Situation, and first Discovery of them; also their Soil, Produce, principal Towns, Inhabitants, Trade, &c.

THESE islands are only three in number; namely, Madeira, properly so called; the island of Puerto, or Porto Santo; and Isla Deserta, or the Desolate Isle. They are situated to the north of the Salvages, and in the Atlantic ocean, between thirty-two and thirty-three degrees, and seventeen and eighteen degrees west longitude, two hundred and fifty miles north by east from Teneriff, three hundred and sixty from Cape Cantin on the coast of Africa, and three hundred north of the island of Farro. They were thus named from the principal of them, which was called by the Portuguese Madeira, signifying a wood or forest, from its being overgrown with trees. They were first discovered by an English gentleman, and many years after by the Portuguese; and as there is something extremely singular in both these occurrences, but more particularly the first, we shall, for the entertainment of our readers, relate the circumstances attending it.

In the reign of Edward III. king of England, a young gentleman, named Robert Machin, conceived a violent passion for Ann D'Arfet, a beautiful and accomplished lady of a noble family. Machin, with respect to birth and fortune, was inferior to the lady; but his personal qualifications overcame every scruple on that account, and she rewarded his attachment with a reciprocal affection. Their friends, however, beheld the young gentleman in a different light; they fancied their blood would be contaminated by an alliance with one of a lower rank, and therefore determined to sacrifice the happiness of the young lady, to the hereditary pride of blood, and their own mercenary and interested motives.

In consequence of these ideas, a warrant was procured from the king, under the sanction of which Machin was apprehended, and kept in close confinement, till the object

of his affections was married to a nobleman, whose chief merit lay in his honorary title and large possessions; and immediately after the nuptial ceremony was over, the peer took his beautiful bride with him to a strong castle which he had in the neighbourhood of Bristol, and then the unfortunate lover was set at liberty.

After being released from his cruel confinement, Machin was acquainted that his mistress had been compelled to give her hand to another. This rendered him almost frantic, and he vowed to revenge the violence done to the lady, and the injury which he himself had sustained; and with this view, imparted his design to some of his friends and companions, who engaged to accompany him to Bristol, and assist him in whatever enterprize he undertook.

Accordingly one of his comrades contrived to get himself hired by the nobleman as a servant, and by that means being introduced into the family, he soon found an opportunity to let the lady know the sentiments and intentions of her lover; when she fully entered into all his projects, and promised to comply with whatever he should propose.

In order to facilitate the design, the lady appeared more cheerful than usual, which lulled asleep every suspicion that her lord might otherwise have entertained; she also entreated permission to ride out daily to take the air for the benefit of her health, which request her consort easily granted. This point being gained, she did not fail to take advantage of it, by riding out every morning accompanied by one servant only, which was her lover's companion, he having been previously pitched upon always to attend her by her own contrivance.

Matters being thus prepared, she one day rode out as usual, when her attendant conducted her to his friend, who waited at the sea-side to receive her. They all three immediately entered a boat, and soon reached a ship that lay at some distance ready to receive them on board; and Machin, having the object of his wishes on board; immediately, with the assistance of his associates, set sail, intending to proceed to France; but all on board being ignorant of maritime affairs, and the wind blowing a hard gale, they missed their port, and the next morning, to their astonishment, found themselves driven into the main ocean. In this miserable condition, they abandoned themselves to despair, and committed their fates to the mercy of the waves. Without a pilot, almost destitute of provisions, and quite devoid of hope, they were tossed about for the space of thirteen days: At length when the morning of the fourteenth day began to dawn, they fancied they could descry something very near them, that had the appearance of land; and when the sun rose, to their great joy they could distinctly perceive it was such. Their pleasure, however, was in some measure lessened by the reflection, that it was a strange country; for they plainly perceived it was covered with a variety of trees, whose nature and appearance they had not the least knowledge of.

Soon after this, some of them landed from the sloop, in order to make their observations on the country; when, returning soon after to the ship, they highly commended the place, but at the same time believed there were no inhabitants in it.

The lover and his mistress, with some of his friends, then landed, leaving the rest to take care of the ship. The country appeared beautifully diversified with hills and dales, shaded with various trees, and watered by many clear meandering streams. The most beautiful birds of different species perched upon their heads, arms, and hands, unapprehensive of danger; and several kinds of wild beasts approached, without offering any violence to them.

After having penetrated through several woody recesses, they entered a fine meadow admirably incircled with a border of laurels, finely enamelled with various flowers. Upon an eminence in the midst of this meadow, they saw a lofty spreading tree, the beauty of which invited them to repose under its shade, and partake of the shelter it would afford them from the piercing rays of the sun. They at length attempted to make a temporary residence beneath this tree; and, providing themselves boughs from the neighbouring woods, they built several small huts, or arbours. They passed their time very agreeably in this place, from whence they made frequent excursions into the neighbouring country, admiring its strange productions and various beauties. Their happiness, however, was of no very long continuance; for one night a terrible storm arose from the north-east, which tore the ship from her anchor, and drove her to sea. The crew were obliged to

submit

submit to the mercy of the elements, when they were driven to the coast of Morocco, where the ship being stranded, the whole crew was made captives by the Moors.

Machin and his companions, having missed the ship the next morning, they concluded she had foundered, and was gone to the bottom. This new calamity plunged them into the deepest melancholy, and so greatly affected the lady, that she could not support herself under it. She had indeed before continually fed her grief, by sad presages of the enterprises ending in some fatal catastrophe to all concerned; but the shock of the late disaster struck her dumb; so that she expired in three days afterwards, in the most bitter agonies.

The death of the lady affected Machin to such a degree, that he survived her but four days, notwithstanding the utmost endeavours of his companions to afford him consolation. Previous to his death, he begged them to place his body in the same grave with her's, which they had made at the foot of an altar, erected under the beautiful lofty tree before-mentioned. They afterwards placed upon it a large wooden cross; and near that an inscription, drawn up by Machin himself, containing a succinct account of the whole adventure; and concluded with a request, that if any Christians should come thither to settle, that they would build and dedicate a church to Jesus Christ upon that spot.

The remaining companions of Machin, after his death, determined to attempt returning to England in the sloop, which had been so well secured near the shore, as not to be in the least damaged by the storm which had driven away the ship. But, happening to take the same course the others had been forced upon, they unfortunately arrived in like manner upon some part of the coast of Morocco, where they met with exactly the same fate, being seized in a similar manner, and carried to the same prison. Here they met with several other Christian slaves, besides their own companions: particularly one John de Morales, a Spaniard of Seville. This man was an excellent sailor, and took a peculiar delight in hearing the English captives rehearse their adventures, by which means he learnt the situation and particular marks of this new discovered country, which he took care to retain in his memory.

In process of time, John I. king of Portugal, having entered into a war with the Moors, passed over into Africa with a formidable army; and in the year 1415 laid siege to and took Ceuta. In this expedition he was accompanied by his sons, one of whom, prince Henry, took great delight in the study of the mathematics, particularly geography and navigation. Upon this occasion, they had a great opportunity of conversing with the Moors and African Jews; and informing himself, by their means, of the situation of several foreign countries, the seas about them, their coasts, &c. Hence grew an insatiable thirst for making new conquests; and from this time he was determined to devote his attention to the discovery of unknown countries. In consequence of which resolution, he retired, after the reduction of Ceuta, to the Algarves, where he found a new town within a league of Cape St. Vincent, erected a fort to defend it, and determined to send out ships from thence upon discoveries.

The person he intended to employ as chief commander, upon these occasions, was a gentleman of extraordinary abilities, named Juan Gonfálvo Zarco, who became famous not only for his maritime discoveries, but for being the first person who introduced the use of artillery on board ships. In 1418 he discovered Puerto Santo, one of the Madeiras; and in 1420 he passed the straits, and surveyed a considerable extent of the coast of Africa. In the mean time, a Spanish prince dying, left by his will a large sum of money for the purpose of redeeming Spanish Christians, who were kept as slaves in Morocco. Terms being agreed upon between the emperor of Morocco and the commissioners, for the redemption of those captives, a Spanish ship was sent to Morocco to fetch home the redeemed Christians, among whom was John de Morales before-mentioned.

On the return of this ship to Spain, it happened to fall in with the squadron commanded by Juan Gonfálvo Zarco, who was, as we have just noticed, then passing the straits to make observations on the coast of Africa. Spain and Portugal being at this time at war, Juan Gonfálvo Zarco made prize of the Spanish ship; but finding it contained only redeemed captives, he was touched with compassion at the miseries they had already suffered during their slavery, and generously dismissed them, taking out only John

de Morales, who he found to be a very intelligent person, an able sailor, and an expert pilot.

When Morales was informed of the reason of his detention, and the discoveries that the Portuguese were upon, he was mightily rejoiced, and offered voluntarily to enter into the service of prince Henry. He then told the Portuguese commander of the island which had been lately discovered by the English, related the story of the two unfortunate lovers, and every other circumstance, which during his captivity, he had heard from Machin's companions.

Gonfálvo was so delighted with his relation, that he tacked about, and returned to the new town which prince Henry had built, called Terra Nabal. On his arrival, he introduced Morales to the prince, when the Spaniard again repeated all that he had before told to Juan Gonfálvo. The prince thought this worthy of becoming a national affair; and therefore, communicating the whole to the king his father, and the Portuguese ministry, they determined to pursue the discovery; and for that purpose fitted out a good ship, well manned and provided, and a sloop to go with oars, when occasion required: and Juan Gonfálvo was appointed to the whole command.

Some Portuguese, on the discovery of Puerto Santo, a short time before, had been left by Gonfálvo on that island; and judging by the account of Morales, concerning the situation of the island they were in quest of, that it could not be far from Puerto Santo, he determined to sail thither. Where when he arrived, the Portuguese whom he had left behind, informed him, that they had observed to the north-east a thick impenetrable darkness, which constantly hung upon the sea, and extended itself upward to the heavens. That they never knew it to be diminished; but a strange noise, which they could not account for, was often heard from thence.

John de Morales appeared to be convinced that this was the island they were in search of; and Juan Gonfálvo was inclined to coincide with him; but all the rest were terrified at the accounts they had heard. It was therefore concluded to remain at Puerto Santo till the change of the moon, to see what effect that would have upon the shade, or whether the noise would cease. But perceiving no alteration of any kind, the panic increased among the generality of the adventurers. Morales, however, stood firm to his opinion of that being the island they were looking for; and very sensibly observed, that, according to the accounts he had received from the English, the ground was covered over with lofty shady trees; it was no wonder, therefore, that it should be exceeding damp, and that the humid vapors might exhale from it by the power of the sun, which, spreading themselves to the sky, occasioned the dark clouds they saw; and with respect to the noise, that might be occasioned by certain currents dashing against the rocks on the coast of the island.

Notwithstanding these obstacles, Juan Gonfálvo determined to proceed; and, setting sail the next day, he at length made land; and the fear of those who had been all along terrified, now vanished. The first point they saw, they named St. Lawrence's Point: doubling this, they found to the southward, rising land, whither Morales and others were sent in a sloop to reconnoitre the coast; and came to a bay which seemed to answer the description given by the English. Here they landed; and finding the cross and inscription over the grave of the two lovers, they returned to Juan Gonfálvo, with an account of their success; whereupon he immediately landed, and took possession of the place, in the name of John I. king of Portugal, and prince Henry his son.

Having built an altar near the grave, they searched about the island, in order to discover if it contained any cattle; but not finding any, they coasted westward till they came to a place where four fine rivers come into the sea, of the waters of which Juan Gonfálvo filled some bottles, to carry as a present to prince Henry. Proceeding farther, they came to a fine valley, which was intersected by a beautiful river, and after that to a pleasant spot covered with trees, some of which being fallen down, Juan Gonfálvo ordered a cross to be erected of the timber, and called the place Santa Cruz, or Holy Cross.

After this, they began to look out for a place proper to fix their residence in while they stayed: and at length found a fine tract of land, not so woody as the rest of the country, but covered over with fennel, which, in the Portuguese language, is called Funcho; from thence the town of Fonchal, or Funchiale, took its name, which was afterwards built on the same spot.

Juan Gonfhalvo, after having viewed other parts of the island, and finding daily cause for new admiration of the beauties continually discovered, returned to Portugal, and arrived at Lisbon in the end of August 1420, without having lost a single man in the whole enterprize; and a day of audience being appointed for him to make his report of his voyage, the king gave the name of Madeira to the new discovered island, on account of the great quantity of excellent wood found upon it.

An order was soon after made for Juan Gonfhalvo to return to Madeira in the ensuing spring, with the title of captain-governor of Madeira, to which title the heir of his family at present adds that of count. He accordingly set sail on his second voyage in May 1421, taking with him the greatest part of his family, and arriving at Madeira he cast anchor in the road, till then called the English Port; but Gonfhalvo, in honour of the first discoverer, then called it Puerto de Machino, from which name it was corrupted to Machico, which it now bears.

He then ordered the large spreading beautiful tree before-mentioned (under which Machin and his companions had taken up their residence) to be cut down, and a small church to be erected with the timber; which, agreeable to Machin's request, he dedicated to Jesus Christ, and inter-fected the pavement of the choir with the bones of the two unfortunate lovers. He soon after laid the foundation of the town of Funchal, which afterwards became famous; and the altar of the new wooden church was dedicated to St. Catherine, by his wife Constantia, who was with him.

John I. king of Portugal, dying, his eldest son and successor Duarte, in consideration of the great sums of money expended in peopling this island, by prince Henry his brother, gave him the revenues of it for life. He likewise gave the spiritualities of it to the order of Christ, which endowment Alonzo XV. afterwards confirmed.

The island of Madeira, properly so called, is composed of one continued hill of a wonderful height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south-side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards; and, in the midst of this slope, the merchants have fixed their country seats, which help to render the prospect very agreeable.

The air of Madeira is more moderate than that in the Canary Islands, and the soil more fertile in corn, wine, sugar, and fruits. Fine springs abound almost in every part, besides which there are eight good rivers. The great plenty of water first suggested the hint to prince Henry of sending sugar-canes to Madeira from Italy, which greatly improved through the increase of heat, and produced more than in their native soil.

This island affords plenty of citrons, bananas, peaches, apricots, plums, cherries, figs, and walnuts; with oranges of all sorts, and lemons of a prodigious size. Fruit-trees from Europe thrive here in perfection; and the natives are said to make the best sweetmeats of any in the world, and particularly greatly excel in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which greatly excel those of Genoa.

The sugar made here is very fine, and has the smell of violets; this, indeed, is said to be the first place in the west where this manufacture was set on foot, and from thence was carried to America: but afterwards the sugar-plantations at Brazil prospering extremely, the greatest part of the sugar-canes in this island were pulled up, and vineyards planted in their stead, that produce excellent wines, which, the author of Lord Anson's voyage observes, seems to be designed by Providence to exhilarate and comfort the inhabitants of the torrid zone.

The cedar-tree here is very strait, tall, and thick, and has a rich scent. The wood of the nallo-tree is of a red rose colour; here are also the mastic and gum-dragon trees; and besides fruit-trees there are a variety of other trees, which are common both to Europe and Africa. The everlasting-flower is a great curiosity; for when it is plucked it cannot be perceived to fade; it grows like sage, flowers like camomile, and always appears fresh and blooming.

Vines are here found in abundance; and from the grapes which they produce a vast quantity of the most delicious wines are made. Indeed the soil is so well adapted for the cultivation of vines, that the grapes exceed the leaves in number, and some of the bunches are sixteen or eighteen inches in length.

There are several sorts of these wines; one is of the colour of champagne, but is not much valued; another sort is a white wine, much stronger than the former. A

third sort is excellent, and resembles malmsey, it being of the same nature with that which grows in Teneriff: and another resembles Alicante wine, but is much inferior to it in taste, and is never drank alone, but mixed with the other sorts, to which it gives a colour and strength to keep. It is observable of the Madeira wines, that they are greatly improved by the heat of the sun, when exposed to it in the barrel, after the bung is taken out. In the whole island they annually make about twenty-eight thousand pipes, eight thousand of which are drank there, and the rest exported, the greatest part being sent to the West-Indies. The wines that are brought directly to England, are not equal in goodness to such as are first carried to the West Indies; and their flavour is exceedingly heightened, if they remain some time in Barbadoes.

The product of each vineyard is usually divided equally between the proprietor, and the person who gathers and presses the grapes; it commonly happens, however, that while the merchant is rich, the gatherer is poor. The people here trade among themselves, or barter.

The principal town in the whole island is Funchal, or Fonchiale, and is seated in the south part of the island at the bottom of a large bay. Towards the sea it is fortified by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, besides a castle on the Loo, which is a rock standing in the water at a small distance from the shore. This town is the only place of trade, and indeed the only place where it is possible for a boat to land: and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it. The only good time for landing is before the sea-breeze comes on. The town is very populous, but the majority of the inhabitants are not natural-born Portuguese; for a great number of English and French Roman catholics settled there, who live after the Portuguese manner; some English protestants, and a prodigious number of negroes and mulattoes, both freemen and slaves. The streets are straight, and drawn by a line, and their houses are pretty well built; their churches are well-built beautiful structures, enriched with gilding, fine pictures, and plate, and people are said to meet in them upon business that has little relation to devotion.

Those women who have no domestic chapels, never go to church but on Sundays and holidays; when, if there be several daughters, they walk two and two before the mother, each having a large thin veil over her face; but their breasts and shoulders are quite bare. By their side walks a venerable old man, with a string of beads in his hand, and armed with a sword and dagger.

This town is the see of a bishop, who has the whole island under his spiritual jurisdiction, and is suffragan to the archbishop of Lisbon. The governor of the island also resides here.

Here are two other towns; one called Manchico, which has a church named Santa Cruz, or the Holy Cross, and a convent of Bernardine friars: the other town is named Moncerito. In short, the island lately contained thirty-six parishes, a college, and a monastery of jesuits, five other monasteries, eighty-two hermitages, and five hospitals. There are several fine seats and castles about the country, in which the merchants chiefly reside.

The ordinary food of the poorer people, in the time of vintage, is little else than bread and rich grapes; and were it not for their abstemiousness, fevers in the hot seasons would be frequent; therefore even the rich, in the hot months, are very moderate in their diet and drinking.

The generality of people in Madeira affect great gravity in their deportment, and usually dress in black; but they cannot dispense with the spado and dagger, which even servants wear; so that you may see a footman waiting at table with a sword at least a yard long, and a great basket hilt to it. The houses are generally plain, as the inhabitants put themselves to no great expence in furnishing them. The windows are secured by wooden shutters at night, and instead of being glazed, are latticed.

With respect to their marriages here, affection is never considered, the principal enquiries are into family descent and circumstances; the women are prohibited from marrying Englishmen, unless the latter consent to embrace the Roman catholic religion.

In this island murders are very frequent, on account of the great number of places deemed sanctuaries, and the ease with which a murderer can thereby screen himself from justice. But if the criminal is taken before he can reach the sanctuary, the punishment is only either banishment or imprisonment, both which, by a pecuniary composition, may be evaded.

Here

Here are great numbers of clergy, who are generally rich; but none who are descended from Moors or Jews are admitted to take orders. The churches are made repositories for the dead, and the corpse is curiously dressed and adorned; yet in the interment, store of lime is used, in order to consume the body as speedily as possible, which usually happens in a fortnight; so that there is then room for another corpse. The bodies of protestants are not allowed to be buried, but must be thrown into the sea; nevertheless they are permitted to be interred in consecrated ground, provided a handsome sum of money is paid to the clergy.

Porto Santo is generally termed one of the Madeira islands, and lies to the north-east of Madeira, in the thirty-second degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the sixteenth degree five minutes west longitude from London, and is only about fifteen miles in circumference. It was discovered in the year 1412, by two Portuguese gentlemen, one of whom was Don Juan Gonsalvo, sent by Prince Henry, son to John I. king of Portugal, to double Cape Bajador, in order to make farther discoveries; but being surprised by a violent storm, were driven out to sea, and, when they gave themselves over for lost, had the happiness to find this island, which proving a safe asylum to them, they called it Porto Santo, or the Holy Port.

This island produces wheat and other corn, just sufficient for the support of the inhabitants; here also are plenty of oxen, wild hogs, and a vast number of rabbits. There are trees which produce the gum called dragon's blood, and likewise a little honey and wax, which are extremely good. It has properly no harbour, but there is good mooring in the road, which affords a convenient retreat for ships going to Africa, or coming from the Indies; so that merchantmen often stop there, which affords considerable profit to the inhabitants, who are descended from the Portuguese, to whom the island is subject.

The inhabitants of this island are all Roman catholics, being under the spiritual jurisdiction of the bishop of Funchal in Madeira. They would live a very quiet life, were it not for the pirates, who often pay them troublesome visits. In the year 1617, they landed here, and carried off six hundred and sixty-three prisoners, besides plundering the place.

There is a little island called the Desart, which produces only orchilla-weed, and some goats are on it: it lies on the east side of Madeira, at about six leagues distance.

S E C T. XVII.

Treating of the Islands of St. THOME, PRINCES ISLAND, FERNANDO PO, ANNABON, St. MATTHEW, and ASCENSION; by whom discovered; their Situation and Extent, Soil, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants; their Manners, Customs, Drefs, Religion, &c.

THE island of St. Thome, or St. Thomas, is directly under the equinoctial line, and about two hundred and forty miles north-west from the city of Loango. The air here is so excessively hot that Europeans soon die, though the blacks will live to near an hundred years of age. Being situated under the equator, the days and nights are consequently of an equal length. The only rainy months are March and September, when the sun passes vertically over the island; but at other times they have nocturnal dews, which refresh and fertilize the soil. It produces less sugar than it formerly did, but is extremely fruitful in wheat, wine, millet, rye, barley, melons, cucumbers, figs, ginger, red parsnips, cabbages, French turnips, lettuces, radishes, sage, beet, parsley, &c. Olive, peach, and almond-trees thrive well in timber, but excessive heat and moisture prevent their bearing fruit. Partridges, quails, ouzels, parrots, &c. abound here; so does the sea with excellent fish, and large whales. A mountain, in the center of the island, hath its top covered with a cloud, which moistens the trees, and greatly nourishes them. The higher the sun ascends above the horizon, the more moisture the cloud affords. The Portuguese built a town, called Pavaosan, with a harbour towards the continent. This town is exceeding pleasant, and the inhabitants barter sugar for cloths, leather, wine, and cheese.

Nearly under the equinoctial line is Prince's Island, in latitude one degree thirty minutes. It is woody and mountainous, abounding in fruit, rice, Indian corn, sugar, herbs, roots, &c. It contains also cattle, hogs, and goats, but the vast number of asses are both troublesome and dangerous, for they will attack and tear in pieces a

man, if they find him single and unarmed, and will wantonly destroy many of the fruits of the earth.

The island of Fernando Po is situated about thirty miles to the westward of the continent, in four degrees north latitude. It is near thirty miles long, and twenty broad, and belongs to the Portuguese government. The produce and inhabitants resemble in all respects those of Prince's Island.

Annabon was discovered by the Portuguese on New Year's Day, and was on that account named Annabon, which signifies the good or the new year. It lies to the east of St. Matthew, in two degrees south latitude, and five degrees ten minutes east longitude, being near two hundred miles from the coast of Loango, and is near thirty miles in compass. There are two high mountains, which being continually covered with clouds, occasion frequent rains. In the several fertile vallies of it are produced plenty of bananas, potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, tamarinds, and cocoa-nuts; besides which the island abounds with lemons, citrons, nuts, figs, Turkish corn, and millet. Here are also oxen, cows, hogs, goats, fowls, pigeons, and plenty of fish. The island also produces great quantities of cotton. The governor is a Portuguese, who has very few white people with him; all the other inhabitants are blacks, who are nevertheless very submissive to the governor, and zealously attached to the Roman catholic religion.

On the south-east part of the island there are two rocks, one of which is very low, and almost even with the surface of the sea; the other is much higher, and very large. On these rocks are a multitude of birds, so tame that they suffer themselves to be taken with the hand. The water is very deep between these two rocks, so that ships may easily pass between them. There is a very good watering-place on the same side of the island, the water running down from the mountain into a valley full of orange and other fruit trees; but it is a difficult matter to come at that water, because of the violent breakings of the sea; and the negroes have raised an intrenchment of stone there from which they can very much incommode those who go thither for water.

The road for shipping is on the north east side of the island, where one may anchor in seven, ten, thirteen, or sixteen fathoms water, on a sandy ground, close to the land, over-against the village where the above-mentioned intrenchment is. When the inhabitants cannot prevent a descent, they leave their houses, which are only of timber and sand, and retire into the mountains. They are very well armed.

The inhabitants are poorly cloathed; the women go bareheaded, and have also the upper part of their body naked, wearing only a piece of linen wrapped round them, which reaches from the pit of the stomach to just below the knee. In the mountains are some civet-cats, which nevertheless afford but little profit. The revenue of the island consists chiefly of cotton.

The island of St. Matthew lies to the north of St. Helena, under the second degree of south latitude. It was so called by the Portuguese, because they discovered it on that saint's day. It is a desert, though there is a fine rivulet of fresh water running through it. Garcias de Loaisa, a gentleman of Biscay in Spain, who commanded the fleet which the emperor Charles V. caused to be fitted out at the Groyne, for the purpose of conquering the Molucca islands, having landed at the island of St. Matthew, found it uncultivated, but full of large orange-trees. He found also some poultry there, and on the barks of trees there were inscriptions in the Portuguese tongue, which proved that some of that nation had been there before; they are said to have continued on that island several years.

Ascension Island is situated almost exactly between Africa and America, being nearly at an equal distance from Loango in Africa, and Fernambuc in Brasil, lying in the same parallel, in seven degrees south latitude, and thirteen degrees ten minutes west longitude from London. This island was discovered in the year 1508, by Tustan de Avigna, on his return from the East Indies, who called it Ascension, because he first perceived it on Ascension-day. It is about twelve miles long, not above three broad, and nearly twenty-five miles in circumference.

The whole island is quite mountainous, and almost barren; yet it is generally used by our homeward-bound East India ships as a place of refreshment. Great quantities of ashes and cinders are found upon the soil, which induces some to imagine, that a volcano must have formerly been here. The harbour, however, is exceeding-

ly convenient, and some few places are fit for tillage.

When the ships touch here, their crews sometimes live upon turtle for a fortnight, and deem it not only pleasant but wholesome food. The goats that run here wild are very lean, and indifferent eating; and though there are various kinds of birds, yet none of the sailors can use them for food, on account of their disagreeable taste.

There is a place on this island, which seamen term the Post-office, and where they leave letters. The method they take is, to put them into bottles, which they closely cork, when the people in the next ship that comes take out the letters, and leave others in their stead.

Though neither the Portuguese, or any other nation, have thought proper to take, plant, or cultivate this island, it is notwithstanding very convenient for East India ships to call at, when they happen to go beyond, or miss of St. Helena. Just before the ships leave this place, the sailors after having themselves feasted sufficiently upon turtle, take a large parcel of those amphibious animals on board, in order to gratify the luxurious palates of the English epicures.

The sailors usually distinguish turtles into four kinds; namely, the trunk turtle, the loggerhead, the hawk's bill, and the green turtle. The trunk turtle is generally larger than the rest, and its back is higher and round; but the flesh is somewhat rank. The loggerhead has obtained his name from the size of his head, which is much larger in proportion than that of the other kinds; but the flesh, like that of the former, being very rank, is very seldom eaten. The hawk's-bill turtle has a long and small mouth, resembling the bill of a hawk. The flesh is but indifferent, but the shell serves for many valuable purposes, such as making snuff-boxes, various trinkets, &c. The green turtle is the most celebrated and most

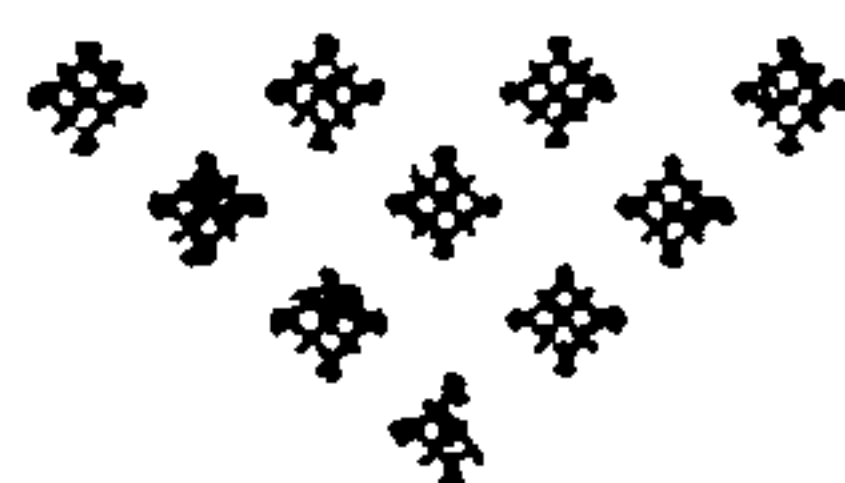
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valuable of the turtle kind. The delicacy of its flesh, and its nutritive qualities, have rendered it highly esteemed. It forms a principal dish in the banquet of the epicures, and at the same time refreshes and feeds the sailor.

Conveniencies are made in ships for bringing these over alive, which cannot, however, be always effected: for though they scarcely require any provisions in the voyage, yet the washing of the ship occasions them to be beat against the sides of the boat that contains them, by which they become battered and lean; so that in order to eat this animal in perfection, the epicure ought to be transported to the turtle, instead of bringing the turtle to him. The colour of the shell of the latter sort is rather greener than that of the others, from which circumstance it derives its name. Some of them are said to exceed five hundred pounds weight, but those of about two hundred are the most common.

This animal seldom leaves the sea, except to deposit its eggs, or to sport in fresh water. In about twenty-five days after laying, the eggs are hatched by the heat of the sun, and the young turtles, about the size of quails, are seen bursting from the sand, as if earth-born, and running directly to the sea, with instinct only for their guide. But it sometimes happens, that the surges of the sea beat them back upon the shore, when they become a prey to the multitude of birds that haunt the coast at that time.

When the sailors are disposed to catch turtles upon this island, they go ashore in the night, where they find great numbers on the strand, which, from their natural slowness, cannot get away before they turn them upon their backs, and leave them till morning, when they can turn them at pleasure; for a turtle cannot again get upon its feet without assistance, when once it is turned on its back, being prevented by the shell.



THE NEW AND UNIVERSAL
SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY;
 BEING A COMPLETE
 HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF
THE WHOLE WORLD.

B O O K III.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF
E U R O P E.

OF EUROPE IN GENERAL.

THE etymology of the name of Europe has been variously given, by different authors; some of whose conjectures concerning it have been so romantic, that it would tend rather to perplex than inform the reader to mention them. However it was antiently known to the Romans, as it is at present to the Italians and Spaniards, by the name of Europa; Europe by the English and French; the Turks call it Rumeli, or Afrank; the Georgians, Frankoba; and the rest of Asia, Frankistan.

On the north, Europe is bounded by the Frozen Ocean; on the south, by the Mediterranean sea; which divides it from Africa; on the east, by Asia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine or Black Sea, and the Palus Mœotis; and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais, or Don, almost to the river Oby, in Muscovy; and it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, on the west.

As a continent, Europe contains in breadth, from the North Cape to Cape Matapan, in the Morea, about two thousand two hundred miles; and in length, from the north of the river Oby, in the east, to Cape St. Vincent, it is near three thousand six hundred miles. It lies between nine degrees, thirty-five minutes west, and seventy-two degrees, twenty-five minutes east longitude, and between thirty-five and seventy-two degrees of north latitude, though it does not fill up all that space.

This division is the smallest of the four parts of the world, but is much to be preferred to the other three for the mildness of the air, the fertility of the soil throughout, the many navigable rivers, the great plenty of corn, cattle, wine, oil, and all things requisite not only for the sustenance but even for the luxury of human life; but especially for the beauty, strength, courage, ingenuity, wisdom, and learning of its inhabitants; the excellency of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of their subjects; and above all, for the sanctity of their religion, where it is professed in its purity.

The European languages are all derived from the six original ones; namely, the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or Old German, Celtic, Slavonic, and Gothic; different dialects whereof with accidental additions, being the languages of all the considerable parts of Europe; Turkey and Tartary excepted.

Though most of the European governments are monarchical, yet their administrations are far less arbitrary, and their sovereigns much less absolute than those of Asia and Africa. Exclusive of those monarchies, in which one man only bears sway; here are aristocracies, or governments of the nobles, such as Venice, &c. and democracies, or governments of the people, of which kind are Holland, Switzerland, and some of the Italian states.

There are in Europe, three empires, namely, Germany, Russia, and Turkey; one spiritual or ecclesiastical sovereignty, called the Popedom; eleven kingdoms, namely, Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Poland, Prussia, Denmark, Sweden, Sardinia, Hungary, and the two Sicilies: one archdukedom, which is Austria; one great dukedom, Tuscany; four great republics, namely, Venice, the United Provinces, Swiss Cantons, and Genoa; four inferior republics, which are Geneva, Lucca, San Marino, Ragusa; and one Cham, viz. European Tartary. Exclusive of these, are the electorates of Germany, and about three hundred smaller sovereignties in Germany, Italy, &c. the sovereigns of which are either spiritual, as archbishops, &c. or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquises, counts, margraves, hospodars, and some others.

Europe contains, besides the circumscribing oceans and seas, one ocean, called the German Ocean, between Germany and England. Five seas; namely, the Mediterranean, between Asia and Europe; Adriatic, between Italy and Turkey; Black, between Europe and Asia; White, between Russia, Sweden, Lapland, &c. and the Baltic, between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland. Two channels; English, between England and France; St. George's, between England and Ireland. One bay; the Bay of Biscay, between France and Spain. And three gulfs, viz. Bothnian, between Norway and Finland; Finland, between Sweden and Russia; and the Venetian, between Turkey and Italy.

The following are some of the principal rivers in Europe; namely, the Danube and the Rhine, in Germany; Volgo and Dwina in the Russian empire; the Loire and Seine in France; the Thames and Severn in England, &c. The chief lakes are Constance, in Germany; Geneva and Guarda in Italy; Wenner, in Sweden; Ladoga and Onega in Russia; Lochaber, in Scotland; and Neagh in Ireland. The principal mountains are, the Pyrenean between France and Spain; the Alps between France and Italy; the Dofrin hills in Sweden; the Grapach hills in Hungary; some hills in the Highlands of Scotland; and several in Wales, particularly Snowdon, &c.

That our readers may form at once a more clear and distinct idea of the continent, islands, and other remarkable parts of this quarter of the globe, we have here annexed a general Inspection Table for Europe, comprehending the different nations thereof with their length, breadth, chief cities, distance and bearings from London, religions, &c.

A NEW, COMPLETE, AND GENERAL TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

Nations.		Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Dist. & Bear. from Lond.		Religions	
Included under the General Names of	Russia - - - - -	1500	1100	Petersburg - -	1140	N. E.	Greek Church	
	Norway - - - - -	1000	300	Bergen - - -	540	N.	} Lutherans	
	Sweden - - - - -	800	500	Stockholm - -	750	N. E.		
	Poland - - - - -	700	680	Warfaw - - -	760	E.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.	
	Denmark - - - - -	240	180	Copenhagen	500	N. E.	Lutherans	
	Greenland - - - - -	} Uncertain						
	Lapland - - - - -							
	Groenland - - - - -							
	King of Prussia's Dominions -	Uncertain		Berlin - - -	540	E.	Lutherans & Calv.	
	Germany - - - - -	600	500	Vienna - - -	600	E.	Papitt. Luth. & Cal.	
	Bohemia - - - - -	300	250	Prague - - -	600	E.	Papists	
	France - - - - -	600	500	Paris - - -	200	S. E.	} Papists	
	Spain - - - - -	700	500	Madrid - - -	800	S.		
	Portugal - - - - -	300	100	Lisbon - - -	850	S. W.		
	Flanders - - - - -	200	200	Brussels - - -	180	S. E.	} Calvinists	
	Holland - - - - -	150	100	Amsterdam - -	180	E.		
	Switzerland - - - - -	260	100	Bern - - -	420	S. E.	Calvinists & Papists	
	Italy.	Naples - - - - -	280	120	Naples - - -	870	S. E.	} Papists
		Papedom - - - - -	240	120	Rome - - -	820	S. E.	
		Piedmont - - - - -	140	98	Turin - - -			
		Milan - - - - -	155	70	Milan - - -			
		Montferrat - - - - -	40	22	Casal - - -			
		Modena - - - - -	65	39	Modena - - -			
		Parma - - - - -	48	37	Parma - - -			
		Mantua - - - - -	47	27	Mantua - - -			
		Genoa - - - - -	160	25	Genoa - - -			
		Venice - - - - -	175	95	Venice - - -			
	Turkey in Europe.	Hungary - - - - -	300	200	Buda - - -	780	S. E.	} Mahometans and Greek Church
		Tuscany - - - - -	115	94	Florence - - -			
		Greece - - - - -	400	240	Athens - - -	1360	S. E.	
		Danubian Provinces - -	600	420	Constantinople -	1320	S. E.	
		Little Tartary - - -	380	240	Caffa - - -	1500	E.	

A NEW AND COMPLETE TABLE OF THE ISLANDS OF EUROPE.

Names.	Situation.	Chief City or Town.	To whom subject.
Great Britain - - - - -	} Atlantic Ocean	London and Edinburgh	} Great Britain
Ireland - - - - -		Dublin	
Anglesea - - - - -		Beaumaris	
Wight - - - - -		Newport	
Scilly - - - - -			
Man - - - - -		Douglas	
The Hebrides, or Western Isles -		Durart	
Shetland - - - - -		Larwick	
Orcades - - - - -		Pomona	
Sicily - - - - -	} Mediterranean Sea	Palermo - - - - -	King of the Two Sicilies
Malta - - - - -		Valetta - - - - -	Knights of St. John of Jerus.
Sardinia - - - - -		Cagliari - - - - -	King of Sardinia
Corfica - - - - -		Baltia - - - - -	France
Majorca - - - - -		Majorca - - - - -	Spain
Minorca - - - - -		Port Mahon - - - -	France
Ivica - - - - -		Ivica - - - - -	Spain
European Islands of the Archipelago and Levant -	} Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice		Turky
Lusitana, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia - - - - -			Venice
Ufedorn - - - - -	} Baltic Sea		Prussia
Wollin - - - - -			Russia
Ofel - - - - -			
Dagho - - - - -			
Gothland - - - - -			
Oeland - - - - -			
Aland - - - - -			
Rugen - - - - -			
Zealand - - - - -			
Funen - - - - -			
Alsen - - - - -			
Falster - - - - -			
Langland - - - - -			Denmark.
Laland - - - - -			
Femerren - - - - -			
Mona - - - - -			
Bornholm - - - - -			
Iceland - - - - -	Northern ocean	Skalholt	Denmark

C H A P. I.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF
G R E A T R U S S I A.

S E C T. I.

Containing a general Account of the RUSSIAN Empire, its vast Extent, Soil, Climates, Situation, Rivers, Lakes, Springs, Minerals, and Animals; also of the Inhabitants, their Persons, Drefs, Manners, Houses, Diet, &c.

RUSSIA is deemed the most extensive empire in the universe, and larger than all the other dominions of Europe taken collectively. It is bounded, towards the north and east, by the main ocean, and towards the west its limits are settled by treaties concluded with several far distant powers; with Sweden, the Poles, Turks, Persians, and Chinese, by whose dominion this immense country is bounded. It is a greater extent (Voltaire justly observes) than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander; for it contains more than eleven hundred thousand square leagues. Neither the Roman empire, nor that of the Macedonian conqueror, comprised more than five hundred and sixty thousand each; and there is not a kingdom in Europe the twentieth part so extensive as the Russian empire. In length, from the isle of Dago, as far as its utmost limits, it contains very near a hundred and seventy degrees; so that when it is noon-day in the west, it is very near midnight in the eastern part of this empire. From north to south, it stretches three thousand werts, which makes eight hundred leagues, in breadth.

This country received the name of Muscovy from the river Mosco, which gave name likewise to the city of Moscow, once the metropolis of the whole empire. It hath likewise been called White Russia, on account of the snow with which it is covered the greatest part of the year; but at present it is usually distinguished by the name of Great Russia.

Geographers usually divide this extensive empire into six grand districts; namely, Livonia and Ingria; Muscovy, Proper, or Western Russia; Eastern Muscovy, or Russia; Muscovite Tartary; Russian Lapland, and Nova Zembla; and the countries dismembered from Poland. These are again subdivided into a great number of provinces, which include several kingdoms, duchies, &c. which have been subdued at different periods, and annexed to the Russian dominions.

It seems needless to remark, that as this empire consists of a great number of provinces, many of which are very extensive, the soil and temperature of the air must of consequence be extremely various in different parts of it. In those which lie beyond the sixtieth degree of latitude, there are few places where corn will grow to maturity; and in the northern parts of the empire, which reach beyond the seventieth degree, no garden-fruits are produced, except in the country about Archangel, where many bushes and shrubs grow spontaneously, and yield several sorts of berries: horned cattle are also bred, and there are plenty of wild beasts and fowls; and in the neighbourhood of that city are several sorts of fish.

Most kinds of trees and garden-fruits, corn, honey, &c. are produced in the middle provinces of the empire. Horned cattle are likewise very numerous here; the rivers are navigable, and full of the best sorts of fish; and the woods abound with game.

The climate is hot in the southern provinces; and though there are many barren wastes in some parts, yet in others the land is covered with verdure and flowers. Tobacco, wine, and silk might be there produced, as the two first are at Astracan and the Ukraine; they have game in proportion to the

extent and number of the woods; and the country is well-watered with rivers, which afford plenty of fish.

In the northern parts of the empire, and also in the middle, the cold is very severe, and the days extremely short in winter, but the summers are warm and delightful, and the twilight is very luminous even in the shortest nights. At the winter-solstice, when the day is at the shortest, the sun rises at Archangel at twenty-four minutes after ten in the morning, and sets at thirty-six after one. At Petersburg the sun rises at fifteen minutes after nine, and sets at forty-five minutes after two; but at Astracan the sun rises at forty-eight minutes after seven, and sets at twelve minutes after four. At the summer-solstice, when the day is at the greatest length, this order is reversed, and the sun rises at Astracan at twelve minutes after four, and sets about forty minutes after seven; and it rises at thirty-six minutes after one, and sets at twenty-four minutes after ten, at Archangel.

Eastern countries are in general much colder in winter, and hotter in summer, than the western that lie in the same latitude; and this is particularly true with respect to Russia, for the river Neva, at Petersburg, is in some years covered with ice so early as the 24th of October; and in other years, about the 22nd of November, at the latest; but it generally thaws about the 26th of April, old style, and is never known to exceed that time.

With respect to the seasons at Petersburg, Mr. Hanway has observed, that February generally brings with it a bright sun and clear sky; every object seems to glitter with gems, and the nerves become braced with the cold. There is then no small amusement in riding in sledges upon the snow, to those, who from the length of the winter, have lost sight of the superior pleasure which nature yields when clothed in her summer apparel.

The month of March is frequently attended with showers, which, with the heat of the sun, penetrate the ice: this is generally three quarters of an inch thick on the Neva, and much thicker in some great rivers to the north-east. This renders it like a honey-comb; and it usually breaks up about the end of that month.

April is frequently very warm; summer seems to precede the spring; for it is sometimes the first of June before any considerable verdure appears, and then the intense heat brings it on so fast, that the eye can discover its progress from day to day. It seems to be one continued day till the middle of July, the sun not entirely disappearing above two hours in the twenty-four; but the extreme heat of the weather considerably lessens the delight which this season naturally affords: however, a week seldom passes without the air being refreshed by southerly and westerly winds, which often bring gentle showers. The above gentleman, who resided about five years in this city, once experienced a delightful autumn to the end of September; but this rarely happens. August closes the scene, so that the summer hardly continues above three months.

The month of September generally brings rain and frost; the severity of both is increased in October, and the Neva is always frozen in November. Then comes in the season for the easy and speedy conveyance on the snow, which brings fresh provisions to market a thousand English miles by land, and the inhabitants of Petersburg often eat the beef of Archangel.

In December and January the cold is so very intense, that the poor, who are overtaken by liquor, or exposed to the air in open places, are frozen to death. But the birch

and alders with which the Russians are supplied, and the commodiousness of the stoves, enable them to introduce into their houses any degree of heat.

Not one tenth of the Russian empire is sufficiently peopled, nor a tenth part of it properly cultivated: for, notwithstanding its prodigious extent, the number of inhabitants who pay the poll-tax is computed only at five millions one hundred thousand; and the rest, including the females, amount to about ten millions exclusive of the inhabitants of the provinces added to the empire by conquest.

With respect to the boundaries of the western part of the Russian empire, towards the east, they are the same with the limits between Europe and Asia; extending on the east, to the Wercoturian mountains, and to the part of the Wolga, which separate it from Siberia; on the south it is bounded by the river Don, and a line drawn from the Nieper to the mouth of the Don, at its entrance into the sea of Asoph; on the west, by the Nieper, which separates it from Poland, the gulf of Riga, the gulf of Finland, Sweden, and Swedish Lapland; and by the Frozen ocean, on the north. It is one thousand five hundred miles in length, and a hundred and ten in breadth; and extends from the twenty-third degree to the sixty-fifth degree of east longitude, and from the forty-seventh to the seventy-second degree of north latitude.

The following are the principal rivers of Russia: 1. Volga, Wolga, or Rha; 2. Don, or Tanais; 3. Dwina, formed by the conflux of the Suchana and the Juga; 4. Occa; 5. Kama; 6. Oby; 7. Jenefaida.

1. The river Wolga is the most considerable in all Russia, and one of the largest in the world, as it traverses the far greater part of Russia; and, after a long winding course of upwards of two thousand English miles, falls into the Caspian sea. It hath its source at the lake of Uronow, at a small distance from the city of Rzeva Ulodimerki, near the frontiers of Lithuania, about fifty-six degrees fifteen minutes of north latitude, and begins to be navigable, and to carry vessels of a considerable burden, six miles below its spring. In its course, which is mostly from east to west, it receives near forty rivers, some of them very large, waters the walls of near double that number of towns, fertilizes all the lands on each side, and supplies them with prodigious quantities of fish, particularly sturgeon, salmon, pike, &c. of a large size and exquisite taste. There grow likewise along its banks the finest truffles, and a kind of large asparagus, of a spontaneous growth, and delicious taste and flavour; and we are told, that along its banks are to be found the only oaks that Muscovy produces. But it unfortunately happens that a great part of that fruitful tract of land along this noble river is so exposed to the incursions of the Cuban Tartars, that it lies altogether uncultivated, and is almost without inhabitants. To remedy this, the late Czar Peter I. caused an intrenchment to be made from that river a little on the side the city of Zantz, quite to the river Don, near the city of Twia; by which means he has secured all that part of the country which lies within the trench; but the rest, which reaches above eighty leagues in length and breadth, is still exposed to those freebooters, and lies neglected. The Wolga, towards the latter end of its course, takes a winding current towards the south, and falls into the Caspian sea, about thirty-six miles below Astracan, in latitude forty-five degrees, forty minutes, longitude fifty degrees thirty minutes east. Towards the end of the spring this river is so swelled by the melting of the ice and snow, as to cause great inundations, particularly in the months of May and June. The masters of the vessels which sail down the Wolga to Astracan, carefully observe the season, as at this time they have not only an opportunity of a safe passage over the shallows, but also over several flat islands which then lie a considerable depth under water. Trees are often torn away by the roots from the banks of this river by the violence of the current; and the anchors of the vessels are frequently so entangled amongst them, that there is a necessity of cutting the cables, so that many anchors are supposed to lie at the bottom. The Wolga abounds with a fine fish called beluga, which is about eight or ten feet in length.

2. The river Don, which is the Tanais of the ancients, is called Tuna or Dunna by the Tartars, and divides this country, in its most eastern parts, from Asia. It has its source in the province of Rezan, on the north east of the lake Iwano-Ossero, or St. John's Lake; and, in its course towards the east, comes so near the Wolga above-mentioned, that in one place the distance between them is about a hundred and forty werts, or about eight English

miles. The late Czar had undertaken to cut a communication between them, by a canal; but this design, grand and useful as it would have proved, he was forced to lay aside; the Nagayan Tartars, who at that time were possessed of the kingdom of Astracan, having with an army driven the workmen from it. From thence the Don, turning its course towards the south-west, and having received several rivers, resumes a great number of cities, and forms many beautiful islands, especially below Teharcushy, which is built upon one of them, but at length dividing into three channels, it falls into the Palus Mceotis, at the famed fortress of Acoph. The whole length of its course is very considerable, on account of the many turnings and windings; on measuring it in a direct line, it is no more than four hundred English miles. The waters of the Don are thick and chalky, consequently not very wholesome to drink. This river is very shallow in summer, when it is full of sand-banks; it affords, however, plenty of large and small fish.

2. The river Dwina (Dowina) hath no spring head of its own, but is formed, as was lately observed, from those called Suchana, and Juga, or Jugh: these join their streams at the city of Oustlough, capital of the province of that name; its name signifies double, as it is composed of those two rivers, and its course bends northwards; in which it receives the Vitfogda, and several other rivers, and, having passed through Archangel, empties itself at two mouths, parted by a small island, into the White sea.

3. The river Occa hath its spring in a large plain in Ukraina, and runs its course towards the north, crosses the fens of Vorochel, and after having received a good number of other rivers, falls into the Wolga, in the lower principality of the Novogorod. On each side of the springs of the Occa, and, at a small distance from it, arise those of the Sem, on the west, which, falling into the Desna, is carried with it into the Borysthenes; which last hurries them into the Black sea; and, on the south, that of Snefna: which, after a short course, falls into the Don.

4. The river Kama springs from the fens that lie on the south of the forest of Zirania, in the country of the Xeremisses, thence winding northwards along the side of that forest, and watering the city of Kaigorod, it winds again south-eastwards and westwards, and falls at last into the Wolga in the kingdom of Casan. It is wide and rapid, and of a blackish hue, but very sweet to the taste.

5. The river Oby, or Vmar, springs out of the lake Kilhai, or Karisan, in the kingdom of Altin, in Great Tartary, and thence passes into the Muscovite Tartary, forming several lakes and islands in its course; and, receiving many other rivers, empties itself at last into the northern sea at Samojedia, south of Nova Zembla. Among the several rivers which it takes in its way, such as Salim, Ket, Vaga, Trafagam, &c. is that of Irtis, which is wide and rapid, and greatly increases the stream and force of it; and, at their confluence, is the city of Sammarock, built just upon the point of the two streams. As it winds farther northwards towards the sixty-sixth degree of latitude, it extends its waves so wide as to form a considerable gulf, with a number of islands, five of which are of a considerable bigness. This gulf grows afterwards narrower and narrower, as it draws nearer to the sea, or rather the streights of Nassau, which divide this part of the continent from Nova Zembla.

6. The river Jenefaida, or Jeniscia, and Jenisia, which is no less considerable than the former; hath its rise likewise in Great Tartary, and falls into the same northern ocean, about one hundred leagues east of the mouth of the Oby, and properly belongs to Muscovy in Asia; therefore shall take no further notice of it in this place.

We are now to describe the principal lakes in this part of the Russian empire, which are those of Ladoga and Onega.

Ladoga is reckoned one of the largest lakes in Europe. It is formed by four rivers, which continually pour in their streams, and those of other smaller lakes into it: the two principal ones are the Vozen, or Corela the Fair, which flows from the lake of Onega; and the Volchova, which flows thither from the south. To prevent its overflow from so many streams, it hath a channel, by which it discharges itself into the gulf of Finland, and thence into the Baltic. It is computed to be above forty leagues long, and about thirty-five in breadth, where widest. It extends itself in length from sixty to sixty-one degrees fifty minutes of latitude, and hath the province of Carelia on the north, and those of Ingria and Novogorod on the south,

south. The late Czar Peter I. not finding the south part of it so navigable as he wished, caused a canal to be dug, by which he hath opened a communication with Peterburg, which canal reaches to the river Volchova; by which means one may now sail even from thence quite to Astracan, by the help of that and some other rivers which fall into the Wolga above-mentioned. As for the lake, it breeds prodigious quantities and variety of good fish; such as salmon, sturgeon, and a peculiar kind called ladog, of the bigness of a herring, but of a finer taste, from which the lake is supposed to have its name.

Onega is the next in bigness, and lies about fifty miles eastward of Ladoga. It extends itself in length from north to south, from sixty degrees thirty minutes to sixty-three degrees of latitude, and is about forty leagues in length, and eighteen in breadth; having the country of Carelia on the north, the lake of Ladoga on the west, the province of Velogda on the south, and the Cargapol, and territory of Onega on the east. It receives the rivers of Povenza, near the city of that name on the north; that of Zelmofa, on the east; those of Vitegra and Susta, on the south; those of Saala, Pudoa, Nikilima, Andama, and some others of less note on the east. Lastly, the Suir carries the waters out of this lake into that of Lagoda. On the south of that of Onega is that called the White Lake, about twenty leagues from it, which discharges itself into it by the river Coeschea, and is about half the bigness of that. Along the coast of Onega are several considerable cities, situate mostly upon, or near the mouths of those rivers that fall upon it from all the four sides, for the convenience of commerce. This lake gives name likewise to a considerable river, and to a territory through which it runs till it empties itself into the White Sea. This tract of land, which extends itself on each side of that river, the only one it hath, quite to the same White Sea, is observed to have neither town nor city, but a vast number of forests and woods.

There is also the lake of Peipus, in Livonia, which is near seventy miles in length, and about forty in breadth. It runs into the gulf of Finland, by the river Narva, and abounds with fish.

All the lakes in this country breed such innumerable swarms of flies, gnats, and other insects, during two or three months of intense heat, as makes the summer nearly as troublesome as the winter to the inhabitants.

There are several medicinal and saline springs in Russia. Fine silver, which also yields some gold, is dug out of the mines of this country; here is also isinglass and precious stones, exceeding fine copper, iron, and many other minerals.

Russia is most fertile near the frontiers of Poland, where the inhabitants are able to supply their neighbours with corn. The northern parts are not only extremely cold, but marshy, and over-run with forests, chiefly inhabited by wild beasts. Besides domestic animals, there are in Russia, hyænas or gluttons, wild beeves, rein-deer, martens, white and black foxes, ermines, and sables, whose skins make the best furs in the world.

The soil of Russia is rather more various than the climate. The southern provinces produce wheat, barley, rye, oats, peas, herbs, with various kinds of fruits, and all these grow so uncommonly fast, that corn is commonly reaped in two months after it begins to appear above the surface of the ground. This is attributed to the snow, which not only enriches and mellows the land, but cherishes and shelters the product of it, and makes it take deeper root in the ground.

In many parts the sowing-time must follow the harvest immediately; because the former, not lasting above three months, there can be no sowing after the frost is begun. But in more moderate climes, they will not sow till April or May, and then their reaping time comes on in August, and sometimes in July. They have no need of manure, the snow supplying that in every respect.

Besides grain, and fruits of various sorts, the country produces plenty of rhubarb, flax, hemp, good pasture for cattle, honey, wax, &c. The astonishing quantity of mushrooms produced spontaneously in Russia, are a great benefit and relief to the poor, while at the same time they are deemed delicacies at the tables of the rich and luxurious. At Moscow, about a thousand load of mushrooms have been sold annually.

Till the time of Peter the Great, agriculture was but little understood in this country; but that monarch, brought his subjects, in some measure, to a better knowledge of it. The principal articles in a Russian farm are wax and honey, which sometimes produce to the peasant

a competency; as he sells the wax and part of the honey, and makes a domestic drink of the rest. This drink is a kind of metheglin, extremely strong and very palatable.

The Russian method of forming bee-hives is as follows: the peasant cuts down a tree, saws the trunk into many parts, hollows the pieces, then stops up the extremities, and bores small holes into the body for the admittance of the bees; then the beehive is made, and the honey secured from all the attacks of the bear, who is exceedingly fond of it, and, in order to make himself master of the sweet treasure, will often try a variety of experiments and stratagems.

In this country, the rye serves not only for bread, but a strong liquor is extracted from it, which is preferred to brandy by the Russians.

In the northern and western provinces, the wild beasts are much the same as those in Lapland, Norway, Sweden, &c. such as rein-deer, foxes, martens, hares, bears, ermines, sables, and squirrels. In the southern provinces are bred black cattle, camels, small horses, goats, sheep, &c. The whole empire abounds with poultry, wild-fowl, game, birds of prey, &c. and the different parts of it are plentifully supplied with various kinds of fish, by means of the northern ocean, Baltic, Gulf of Finland, White Sea, Black Sea, and Cyprian Sea; and the innumerable rivers, lakes, rivulets, &c. produce immense quantities of salmon, trout, pike, sturgeon, &c.

S E C T. II.

Containing a Description of the first grand Division of GREAT RUSSIA, namely LIVONIA and INGRIA.

THE province of Livonia, or Leiland, is bounded on the north by the gulf of Finland; on the south, by the duchy of Courland and Lithuania; on the east, by Ingria and part of Russia; and, on the west by the gulf of Riga. It is admirably situated for commerce, having the sea on the north and west, the great lake Popus on the east, and the river Dwina on the south. Three other internal lakes, and many small rivers, likewise greatly contribute to the advantage of this province, by facilitating the inland navigation. From east to west, where broadest, it is about one hundred and ten miles in length, and about one hundred and fifty from north to south. Though extremely marshy, it is in general very beautiful, having many pasture grounds, and producing in great plenty corn, cattle, honey, &c.

About the twelfth century, the Livonians were involved in pagan superstitions, and were to a great degree ferocious and savage in their manners. They were brought to embrace Christianity by their neighbours the Germans, who, in order to convince their new converts, were obliged to use the compulsive means of fire and sword.

Albert the canon of Bremen, who built Riga, held Livonia as chief of the empire; he afterwards obtained permission to coin money, and to institute a new order of knighthood, called the sword-bearers. These knights, attempting to make converts among their neighbours, shed oceans of blood. In the year 1234, they were united to the Prussian, or knights of the Teutonic order; when, in conjunction, they maintained very long and bloody wars against the Poles, Russians, and other neighbouring powers. Albert of Brandenburg, in the sixteenth century, became a Lutheran, which occasioned a separation between the Livonian order and that of Prussia. About 1535, notwithstanding the menaces and intrigues of the emperor Charles V. the principal part of the Livonians declared for protestantism.

The Germans, Russians, Poles, and Swedes, have alternately ravaged this fine country. By the treaty of Oliva, in 1660, it was entirely ceded to the Swedes, who kept possession of it till the beginning of the present century, when, during the wars of Charles XII. the Russians subdued the whole duchy of Livonia, as well as Ingria, both which were afterwards, by the treaty of Naestadt, confirmed to Russia.

With respect to the native peasants of Livonia, they are of strong constitutions, fit to undergo hardships, but even to this time retain a great part of their ferocious and savage disposition; they call themselves Lutherans, but are so extremely ignorant of religion in general, that they scarce know an article of that which they pretend to profess.

We shall here relate some remarkable peculiarities in their marriage ceremonies, and other superstitious observances among them. When a country fellow is disposed to marry a lass out of another village, he goes on horseback

horseback to fetch her, and makes her embrace him with the right hand. He hath in his hand a stick cleft at the top, where he puts a piece of brass money, which he gives to him who opens the wicket through which he is to pass. Before him rides a man that plays upon the bagpipe, as also two of his friends, who, having naked swords in their hands, give two strokes therewith across the door of the house where the marriage is to be consummated, and then they thrust the point of one of the swords into a beam over the bridegroom's head; this is done to prevent charms, which, they say, are common in that country. To the same end the bride scatters little pieces of cloth or red serge by the way, especially where cross ways meet, near crosses, and upon the graves of little children dead without baptism, whom they bury in the highways. She hath a veil over her face while she is at table, which is not long; for, as soon almost as the guests are seated, the married couple rise and retire. About two hours after they get up, and are brought to sit down at the table. Having drank and danced till such time as they are able to stand no longer, they lie down on the floor, where, like so many swine, they sleep all together.

Their notions respecting religion are very extravagant: however, they believe there is another life after this. A Livonian woman, being present at her husband's burial, put a needle and thread into the grave, giving this reason for it, that her husband being to meet in the other world with persons of good rank, she was ashamed he should be seen with his cloaths rent. Nay, they pay so little regard to a future state, that in the oath they take to decide any difference at law, instead of interesting the salvation of their souls therein, their present and temporal advantages are the principal objects of their consideration.

These people are greatly addicted to sorcery; and think it so necessary for the preservation of their cattle, that fathers and mothers teach their children; so that there is scarce any peasant but is a forcerer. They all observe certain superstitious ceremonies, by which they think to elude the effects of it: on which account they never kill any beast, but they cast some part of it away; nor do they ever make a brewing but they spill some part of the liquor, that the sorcery may fall upon that. They have also a custom of rebaptizing their children, if, during the first six weeks after their birth, they happen to be sick, or troubled with fits, when they think the cause to arise from the name given them at their birth not being proper for them; wherefore they give them another; but they use their utmost endeavours to conceal this practice, which is deemed both sinful and criminal, and, if known, would be severely punished by the magistrate.

They are not less attached to the exact observance of their customs, than obstinate in their superstitions. There is a very pleasant story related of an old country fellow, who, being condemned, for some great crime, to lie along upon the ground to receive his punishment, and Madame de la Barré, pitying his almost decrepid age, having so far interceded for him, as that his corporal punishment should be changed into a pecuniary mulct of about fifteen or sixteen pence, he thanked her for the kindness intended him; but said, that, for his part, being an old man, he would not introduce any novelty, nor suffer the customs of the country to be altered, but was ready to receive the chastisement which his predecessors had not thought it a hardship to undergo; whereupon he put off his cloaths, laid himself upon the ground, and suffered the punishment ordered to be inflicted upon him.

We may here observe, that in Livonia, this is accounted no punishment, but only a customary chastisement: for the people, being of a refractory nature, must be treated with that severity which in other places would be insupportable. They are not permitted to make any purchase; and to prevent their so doing, they have only so much ground to manage as will afford them a subsistence. Yet they will venture to cut down wood in some places of the forests, and, having prepared the ground, sow wheat in it, which they hide in pits underground, to be secretly sold. If they are taken in this, or any other fault, they make them strip themselves naked down to the hips, and to lie down upon the ground, or are tied to a post, while one of their comrades lashes them with a switch or holly wand, till the blood comes on all sides, especially if these words,—*selcke nack maha pexema*, beat him till the skin falls off from the flesh, are pronounced by the master.

The use of money is likewise prohibited to this class of people; for as soon as it is known they have any, the gentlemen and their officers, who are paid by the peasantry,

take it from them; but this cruelty of the masters frequently overwhelms these poor people with despair; of which there some years ago happened a sad example: a peasant, pressed by his officer for what he neither had nor ought to pay, and being deprived of the means whereby he might maintain his family, strangled his wife and children. The officer coming the next day to the house, thinking to receive the money, struck his head against the man's feet that was hanging, and then perceived the miserable catastrophe of which he was the occasion.

The province of Livonia is divided into two districts; namely, Estonia and Letten; the former of these, which is the most northern part, is bounded, on the south, by Letten; on the east, by Russia; on the west, by the gulf of Riga; and, on the north, by the gulf of Finland.

The chief cities and towns are, 1. Revel, the capital of Estonia, it is situated partly on a plain, and the other part on the declivity of a mountain, at the top of which there is a strong castle. It is a hundred and twenty-five miles from Stockholm, and stands on the gulf of Finland. Waldemar, the second king of Denmark, founded Revel, but sold it, together with Narva and Resenberg, to the grand master of the Teutonic order. Revel was one of the places originally admitted into the confederacy of the Hanse-Towns, and was a commercial place of some note till 1550, when the Russians removed the commerce of Revel to Narva, after having subdued the latter. But in 1711, when the Russians conquered the former, they again turned its trade into the old channel, and since that period the place hath in some degree increased in wealth and importance. The citizens still preserve the privileges granted by their former patrons the grand masters, the kings of Sweden, &c. and also enjoy their own forms of government, though a Russian garrison secures the place. The market-place, however, is guarded by a band of their own.

The civil government is democratic, consisting of elective magistrates, counsellors, &c. who are obliged occasionally to consult their constituents; and their religion is Protestantism, according to the Augsburg confession of faith. The Danish peasants, who formerly settled here, are still distinguishable from the original inhabitants by their habits, customs, manners, &c. During the last siege of Revel, fifty thousand of the inhabitants died of the plague, which was probably owing to the want of room, proper provisions, &c. as many people had taken shelter in the city from the neighbouring parts of the country.

2. The other town is Narva, situated on the river Narva, which divides Livonia from Ingria. It was originally built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark; taken by John Basilowitz, czar of Muscovy or Russia; retaken by the Swedes; and finally reduced by Peter the Great, in the year 1700. Previous to its reduction, when the Russians laid siege to it with an army of eighty thousand men, under the command of the duke of Cray, Charles XII. king of Sweden, advanced to its relief, at the head of only eight thousand men; attacked the Russians in their lines, gave them a total overthrow, slew twenty thousand men on the spot, took the general, most of the officers, and a great number of private men prisoners, with a hundred and ninety pieces of cannon and mortars, a hundred and seventy-one colours and standards, the whole baggage of the army, &c. &c. But Peter afterwards most severely revenged the dishonour of his arms on that unfortunate day, when he afterwards took Narva, and transported the wretched inhabitants to Attraction, the most remote part of his dominions. They yet shew the bastion where he gave the assault; and it is said, that on his entering the place; and finding the Swedish governor in his robe de chambre, unapprehensive of such an event, he struck him several times, reproaching him for his inattention to his sovereign's interest, and for having been found in a dress so unworthy of a soldier, while the place was in such imminent danger.

The Livonian dress is thus described by a late English traveller: "I had the pleasure, says he, to dine yesterday in company with four ladies, who were habited in the Livonian dress. Nothing could more aptly realize that barbarous splendor which has been so frequently depicted but is now so rarely to be seen, in any parts of Europe. It was expensive, and might have been worn by persons of the first eminence, without degradation of their rank. Their heads were covered with a complete bonnet of pearls, which were not worth less than two thousand rubles (four hundred and fifty pounds sterling, at four shillings and sixpence the ruble); and round their necks were several strings of the same; a part of their necks was left exposed, but the lower part was concealed by a vest

vest of red silk, which sat close to the breast, and was bordered with a very broad gold lace, which descended to the feet. Their arms had no other covering than the sleeves of their shifts; and when they walked out, they threw over their heads and shoulders a piece of silk resembling a highland plaid, and which answers to the silk cloaks of our ladies."

On the other side of the river, and just opposite to Narva, is the fortress of Iwanogorod, upon a rock which it almost surrounds. At the foot of this rock there is a little town called Russian Narva, inhabited only by Russians. Among other ridiculous superstitions, the people have a custom of observing the eve of Whit Sunday as a festival sacred to the memory of the dead. On this occasion the women assemble in the church-yard, spread clean napkins on the graves and tomb-stones, and cover them with painted eggs, fish dressed various ways, cakes, custards, &c. The priest then prays over, and perfumes these with frankincense; the clerk follows, and gathers up the offerings for the use of the church; and the women make the most dismal lamentations during the whole ceremony.

Near two miles from the city, an impetuous cataract rushes violently down a precipice with a most tremendous noise, and dashes so furiously against the rocks, that a mist or vapour continually ascends from its foam, which produces a beautiful rainbow when the morning sun obliquely shines upon it. The river Narva, which flows from the lake Peibus, and empties itself into the gulf of Finland, is also exceeding rapid; and on the banks of this river, near where it issues out of the above lake, is a strong fortress called Nieslat or Newfort. There is another strong fortification, called Weisenburgh, in the river Weifs, about twenty miles west of Narva; and thirty miles south of Weisenburgh, in the midst of a morass, is situated Wessenstein, another strong fortress.

A small sea-port town, called Tolsburg, is situated near the gulf of Finland, at the mouth of the river Semleback, and is about ninety miles distant from Narva, to the east. Badis, or Padis, a fort seated on the river Atsa, is about twenty miles from Revel to the west. Hapsal, or Hapsel, is situated on a small gulf of the Baltic, to which it gives its name, over against the isle of Dagho, about thirty miles from Revel, to the south-east. It was formerly the see of a bishop, and subject to the Danes; but in 1572 it was taken by the Russians. The Swedes seized it in 1581, and in the beginning of this century it became again subject to the Russians.

The town of Lehal is a place of great strength, and has a castle of good force. It stands on the Baltic, or rather on the gulf of Riga, sixty miles from Hapsal, to the south-east.

The town of Parnaw, or Pernaw, stands on the gulf of Riga, at the mouth of the river Parnaw, sixty-five miles from Revel, to the south. It is a small city, but a place of good trade, a great quantity of corn, especially, being shipped hence for the Netherlands. It is divided into the old and new city, and was formerly one of the Hanse-Towns. It is pretty well fortified, but owes its strength chiefly to its castle; though it is built only of timber, as are all the houses and churches. The Poles made this the capital of one of their palatinates, when it was under their jurisdiction. It became subject to the Swedes in 1617, after it had been taken and retaken many times in the last century; and in 1710 it surrendered to the Russians. A university was removed hither from Derpt, in the year 1685, but it is not much frequented. The river Parnaw, on which this town is situated, has its spring in a large forest near the little river Beca, and the castle of Wessenstein: this river falls into the gulf of Riga at Parnaw, receiving, in its course, the rivers Fela and Pernkeia.

The large and ancient city of Derpt, or, as the inhabitants call it, Derpat, and the Russians Junogorod, is situated on the river Eimbeck, between the lakes Peibus and Wertzi, which have a communication together by that river. It is sixty miles distant from Narva to the south, and seventy-five from Parnaw to the east. It was formerly the see of a bishop, and was adorned with an university in 1632, by king Gustavus Adolphus, on account of its being a pleasant healthy place, abounding with provisions, and all necessaries: but the university, as we observed above, has been since removed to Parnaw. The buildings at Derpt are of stone and brick, but the town is not so populous as it was formerly. It has a strong castle for its defence, seated on a hill; but it has, however, been subject to many masters. The Teutonic knights took it from the Russians in 1580, the Poles seized it in 1582, afterwards the Swedes drove them out; but in 1603, they

regained and kept it till 1625, when the Swedes took it again; and at length, in 1704, it surrendered to the Russians, who have ever since kept possession of it.

The town of Felin, with a castle belonging to it, stands on a small river, which runs from the lake Wertzy to Parnaw, seventy miles from that city to the east, and as many from Derpt to the west. Ringon is a fort thirty-five miles distant from Felin to the south. Tarnest, another fort, formerly very strong, but so demolished when the Poles took it, that though the Swedes were at great expence in repairing it while in their possession, they could not restore it to its former strength, nor has it been much improved by the Russians, in whose possession it now is.

Letten is the other division of Livonia: this district is bounded on the east, by Russia; on the west, by the Baltic; on the south and south-west, by the river Dwina; and, on the north, by Estonia.

The principal city is Riga, which is the capital, not only of Letten, but of all Livonia: but a judicious traveller, in speaking of it, says, "My stay in the city has been rather regulated by caprice, than strictly proportioned to the number of objects it presents, either respecting elegant amusement or instruction. It would be difficult to find a spot more destitute of any natural beauties and advantages, to induce an adventurer to fix in, than in that where Riga stands. Deep barren sands encompass it on every side; and a traveller, who regulated his ideas by that part of it he saw here, would accuse those authors of gross imposition who have called Livonia the granary of the north. Commerce evidently gave birth to the place; and by the genius of commerce it is still protected and enriched."

The river Dwina is an inexhaustible source of plenty, and makes ample amends for every other deficiency. It runs a vast length into the interior parts of Poland, and conveys down all the articles of trade exported from hence. Timber is one of the chief; and many of the largest trees do not arrive in Riga, within two years, being cut near Bender, on the banks of the Niester, from whence they are drawn over the snow to the Dwina, in winter; and the ensuing season are brought down to the harbour for shipping.

The city of Riga stands in a large plain on the western banks of the river Dwina, six miles above the mouth of it, which makes a commodious harbour from the gulph of the Baltic, called from thence the gulph of Riga, though by some the gulph of Livonia. The city is one hundred and twenty miles distant from Revel to the south, and one hundred and sixty-five from Narva, to the south-west. It is seated in the fifty-sixth degree fifty-three minutes north latitude, and in the twenty-fourth degree east longitude from London, on the north-east side of the Dwina; and though it is not of any great extent, it is populous, well fortified, and famed for its trade and opulence. The houses are handsome, and for the most part built of stone. They are seldom above two stories high, and have steep roofs, for the better carrying off the water, which is very penetrating on the melting of the snow, wherein they have the advantage of the Russians, who have still greater occasion to provide against the like inconveniencies. The cellars are used as warehouses for flax, and other goods; and the entrance or first apartment in many houses is the coach house, through which you must pass to the parlour and dining-room. The streets are narrow. The Lutheran churches, as the cathedral, St. James's, St. Mary Magdalene's, St. Peter's, and St. John's, are handsome structures. The seminaries, called the imperial Lyceum, and the city Gymnasium, are in a flourishing condition; and the masters have very considerable salaries. Here are also a strong citadel, and two arsenals well stored with arms, one at the charge of the crown, and the other of the city. The fortifications both on the land and water side, have been improved under its present masters, and those toward the sea are enlarged by additional works. The city, by means of its excellent harbour, has, during the summer season, a good trade with England and Holland, and in winter a trade with the Russian provinces by sledges, which renders it extremely populous, and very considerable. There are in the town almost as many shops as houses; and provisions are very plentiful and cheap here. About one thousand vessels arrive yearly at Riga, laden with corn, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, plants, furs, skins of all sorts, Russian leather, ashes to make soap, glass, &c. which are exchanged in trade for the commodities of the more southern climates.

This city is defended by strong walls, bulwarks, and a very large trench on the land-side, and a strong castle on the

the river, where the governor-general of Livonia resides; it is called fort Robber, or Robruns. The harbour is securely guarded by the Dunamunde fort, situated near the mouth of the Dwina, where the ships which sail out of the Baltic into the river pay customs. This place was taken by the Swedes in 1609 and 1618; and by the Saxons in 1700, who gave it the name of Augustusburg. In 1701 it surrendered a third time to the Swedes, and was taken by the Russians in 1710, who threw eight thousand bombs into it, which reduced it almost to a heap of rubbish.

The city of Riga was built in the year 1200, and soon after inclosed with a wall. It has suffered much by fires and sieges. Charles IX. king of Sweden, besieged it unsuccessfully in 1605, and again in 1609; but his son and successor, Gustavus Adolphus, was more fortunate, and took it in 1620. He gave the jesuits and all the Roman catholics leave to retire with all their effects. In 1656, while this prince was making war in Poland, the czar of Muscovy entered Livonia, and attacked Riga; but after a siege of seven months, he was obliged to retire. Its privileges are very considerable, which were confirmed by the empress Anne: the supreme court of judicature and the high consistory are held here.

The inhabitants of Riga are a frank kind of people, and very polite to strangers; they live by their trade, and have by their policy kept up hitherto their share of liberty. Their city is governed by four magistrates, and they have also a great number of counsellors, and a syndic. Their magistrates have a salary annexed to their office, and they are not permitted to trade during their magistracy, which, though elective, may continue as long as they live, provided they please their council. They have great power in the city; but if they think they have not obtained justice, they appeal to St. Petersburg, and frequently get the sentence of the magistrates reversed. The women are very pretty, rather inclinable to be fat, but have fine agreeable features; the unmarried women are kept in very good order; but it is said, that after marriage, they do not pay a great regard to chastity, against which they offend not by stealth, but pretty openly. The ladies of quality are very vain, but at the same time polite to those who pay them great respect. Merchants wives, and other idle women, are to be seen at the doors of their houses almost through the whole day, for no other reason than to see the gentlemen pass by, and receive their compliments. To such a length is this foolish custom come, that the men scarcely can be covered one moment; and therefore walk with their hats under their arms, like so many petit-maitres. Such is the account given of the people of this city by Dr. Cook, who was many years a physician to the empress of Russia.

The town of Rokerhauren, or Rokenhuys, formerly stood on the river Dwina, ninety miles above Riga, to the east. It was strong by its situation on a hill, rather than by its fortifications, but was defended by a good citadel. It had been the residence of the archbishop of Riga. The Russians, in 1701, blew up this town, after Riga had been unsuccessfully besieged by them.

The town of Nienhaus, or Nyenhausen, on the borders of Muscovy, near the river Peddes, is forty miles distant from Derpt to the south, and one hundred and eighty from Riga to the east. Marienburgh is twenty-five miles from Nienhaus, to the south-west. Warbeck stands at the mouth of the river Eimbeck, near the lake Peipus. These three last are strongly fortified, Sewold, or Segenwold, is situated forty-five miles from Riga towards the east, on the south bank of the river Treiden; and over against it, on the other side of the river, lies Treiden, from which it takes its name. The town of Wilmer stands eighty miles from Riga, to the north-east, and on the bank of the same river.

The province of Ingria, or Ingermanland, which comprises the second part of the grand division of Russia, is bounded, on the south, by the river Luga, on the north, by the gulph of Finland, lake Ladoga, and the river Nieva; on the west by lake Peibus, and the river Nieva: and, on the east, by an imaginary line supposed to be drawn between the town of Lubo, to the river Lugo. It is one hundred and thirty miles long, seventy in breadth, and abounds in cattle. In the winter here are a great number of elks, which in the summer swim in the river Nieva, and make incursions into Carelia. The czar, Peter the Great, being desirous of opening a communication between Archangel and the Baltic, by means of the gulph of Finland, in order to improve the commerce of his dominions, determined to make himself master of Ingria, which he accordingly did in the beginning of this century.

Then to make it an European maritime power, he determined on one of the most arduous undertakings that ever was entered upon by human resolution, viz. building the city of Petersburg, which he designed to make not only the capital of Ingria, but of the whole Russian empire, the centre of trade, and the principal seat of the imperial residence.

The city of Petersburg is situated between Ingria and Finland, in a fenny island, surrounded by the river Nieva, in sixty degrees north latitude, and thirty-one degrees thirty-four minutes east longitude, being distant from Revel, one hundred and eighty miles; from Stockholm, three hundred and eighty-seven; from Moscow, three hundred and thirty; from Warsaw, five hundred and seventy; from Vienna, eight hundred and forty; and from London, one thousand one hundred and ten. The island on which this fine city has been so wonderfully raised, was nothing but a heap of mud in the short summer of these climates, and a frozen pool in winter, not to be approached by land, but by passing over wild forests and deep morasses, and had been till then the habitation of bears and wolves, till it was in 1703, inhabited by above three hundred thousand Russian, Tartar, Cossack, &c. peasants, whom the czar called together from all corners of his vast empire, some near one thousand two hundred miles; and these made a beginning of this work.

To accomplish his design, this enterprising prince was obliged to break through forests, open ways, dry up moors, and raise banks, before he could lay a foundation. At first, the workmen had neither sufficient provisions, or even pick-axes, spades, wheel-barrows, planks, &c. or huts to shelter in; and yet the work went on so expeditiously, that in five months the fortress was raised, though earth thereabouts was so scarce, that the greatest part of the labourers carried it in the skirts of their cloaths, or in bags made of old rags and mats, barrows being then unknown to them. It is computed, that at least one hundred thousand perished at the place; for the country had been desolated by war, and supplies by Ladoga lake were often retarded by contrary winds.

The czar himself drew the whole chief plan. While the fortress was going on, the city began gradually to be built. He obliged many nobility, merchants, and tradesmen, to go and live there, and trade in such commodities as they were ordered. Provisions being scarce, and conveniencies wanting, the place at first was far from being agreeable to persons of distinction, who had in Moscow large buildings, and seats in the country with fish-ponds, gardens, &c. However, he little regarded the complaints of those who only considered their own ease. The Boyars (nobility) brought great retinues with them, and merchants and shopkeepers soon found their account in settling here. Many Swedes, Finlanders, Livonians, from towns nearly depopulated by the wars, repaired hither. Artificers, mechanics, seamen, were invited also, to encourage shipping; who, having worked out the time agreed on for the czar, were employed by the noblemen; and some built for themselves and settled, each man being allowed to pitch on the spot he liked best. In one year, thirty thousand houses were erected, and, in two or three more, double the number, which doubtless are very much increased since. Some, indeed, but chiefly in the slabodas or suburbs, are mean, and may be taken to pieces in two or three hours, and set up elsewhere.

To build this town, the czar caused that of Ninschans, a strong fort on the Nieva, not far from Noteburg, to be demolished for the materials, and the inhabitants removed hither: and as he intended to transfer the trade of Archangel to Petersburg, in 1713, he made one thousand families come from Moscow, and offered great advantages to all foreigners that should settle there; and ordered that all goods, usually sent to Archangel, to be sold, &c. to strangers, should be sent hither, and the duties to be in every respect the same; but the commerce, &c. were not entirely removed till some years after. In 1714 it was ordered that all future houses should be built of brick, and tiled.

The citadel is a long and irregular hexagonal, with six bastions parallel to each other, except the two middlemost, one of which, opposite to Carelia, has two orillons or blinds; that over against the river, none; each of the four others, one. They were all at first but earth and turf; but in 1710, the czar resolved to have them all lined with strong walls; those on Carelia side were finished in his life-time, and the work has been carried on and completed by his successors. The wall is thirty feet high to the parapet, and the faces are all lined with large iron and brass guns. On the

the flanks, which are pretty short, are two rows of casemates, one above another, arched over, and covered with beams, and turf bomb-proof. The curtains on the right side of this citadel's gates has one of the finest royal dispensaries in Europe, both for the great quantity of drugs and medicines, and the large number of beautiful porcelain vessels from China and Japan, contained therein. This citadel has two gates, one adorned with statues, particularly of St. Peter, with his two emblematical keys, and on its inside the black eagle of Russia, with the globe and the sceptre in its two talons; and below the figure, the Russian tutelary patron, St. Nicholas. Before that gate is a ravelin; from whence is a bridge, with two draw-bridges over an arm of the river. Gallies and small vessels are sheltered from bad weather in this place.

It being the design of Peter the Great to introduce as much as possible politeness and refinement amongst his subjects, he therefore, in 1719, caused assemblies to be opened at Petersburg; which he put under several excellent regulations, being seven in number, and which were printed in the Russian tongue. In these assemblies, there is dancing in one room; in another playing at cards, draughts, or chess, in which last game the meanest Russians excel; in a third room, there are commonly people smoking and conversing together; and in the fourth, are ladies and gentlemen diverting themselves with questions and commands, cross-purposes, and such like innocent amusements, that promote mirth and good humour. Although none of the company are obliged to drink more wine or brandy than they ask for, except on the transgressing the established rules of the assembly, which happens very often; yet there are many Russians who embrace that opportunity of regaling themselves at other men's cost, and consider assemblies as one of the most laudable of the late czar's innovations. Every great man of the court keeps, in his turn, an assembly once in the winter at least; and the master of the police has notice sent to him, if the czar pitches upon a particular person for that purpose.

Peter the Great also established an academy here, which has in it a great number of professors in most sciences, and the belles lettres, who have liberal salaries. The building is a superb pile, containing two stories, with a beautiful cupola in the middle, and an observatory. Here is a good library, and all manner of natural and artificial curiosities. Dr. Cook says concerning it, "In one of the galleries, in a case, is the skin of a Frenchman tanned and stuffed; this has been the tallest man I ever saw. In another case, is his skeleton, and a pair of breeches made of his wife's skin, also dressed; the leather was like buff. On the bottom, or pavement, stands the skin of an English chestnut horse, stuffed, saddled and bridled, and beside it the skeleton: Peter the Great used to ride this horse. Here I saw the head of the unfortunate Miss Hamilton, a Swedish lady, who was put to death for having murdered her child unlawfully begotten; and this is the only murder of that kind I ever heard of in Russia. It is said, Peter went and saw her executed; he wept much; but could not prevail upon himself to pardon her, for fear, they tell us, that God would charge him with the innocent blood she had shed. He caused her head to be capped and injected. The forehead is almost complete. The face is the beautifullest my eyes ever beheld. The dura mater and brain are all preserved in their natural situation. This is kept in spirits in a large crystal vessel." Besides the above, here are deposited great quantities of earths, fossils, stones, ores, natural metals, minerals, shells, mosses, corals, &c.

In one room is a figure of Peter the Great in wax-work, as large as the life; he sits in an elbow chair cross-legged, dressed in a blue suit of cloaths, and has a hanger by his side. He has short black hair, his head covered, and is surrounded by mathematical, philosophical, and mechanical instruments.

The plan of this academy was drawn up by Peter the Great himself, and consists of eleven articles; specifying the number of members, &c. the sciences to be taught; directions to the members, relating to their studies; their times of meeting; public lectures once a day, and systems of the sciences professed; filling up vacancies, &c.

Besides the above, here is also an academy for the improvement of arts, furnished with several Greek and Roman models, &c. But this is still in its infancy, and Russia hath as yet produced no great genius in this way to render it famous.

On the south side of the river, opposite to the academy, is the admiralty, which is a noble square building. It is

fortified, hath three entrances by means of drawbridges, and contains a great variety of offices, magazines, &c. Many large men of war, sloops, &c. are built here. On the top of a tower belonging to the admiralty is a high spire covered with copper, double gilt; and a ship made of the same metal, and also double gilt, is placed on the summit.

To the eastward of the admiralty stands the castle, a royal foundery, in which are cast some of the best cannon, mortars, bombs, &c. in the universe. It is a noble building, and on the top of it is the figure of a burning bomb, double gilt.

An academy of the marine was also established at Petersburg by the late czar, to which he obliged every considerable family in Russia to send one or more of their sons or kinsmen, above ten and under eighteen years of age, where they were instructed in navigation: they were here kept under a strict discipline; taught the languages, also to ride and fence, and other exercises proper for gentlemen.

There is a wharf at the west end of Petersburg for building small vessels; and machines called camels, which are used to carry great ships over the bar for Cronstadt: and on the west end of the westernmost island belonging to St. Petersburg, there is an excellent well-fortified haven, where near three hundred Russian gallies may ride with great security.

On the west end of the above-mentioned island is the custom-house, and a fine exchange, (though only a wooden fabric) well frequented by merchants. It is an extensive and uniform building, with convenient warehouses for the preservation and stowing of goods. Not far from the castle is a noble square magazine, built of brick, for preserving merchandize. It has only one gate, which is very large, and is guarded constantly by one hundred soldiers.

On the southernmost part of the city stands the grand market-place, in which are many warehouses to deposit all kinds of commodities, domestic and foreign, for sale. It is a large square, with four entries, and a range of shops on each side, both within and without, with covered galleries, to secure from the rain those who frequent it. A learned traveller observes, that a stranger need not, as in other places, hunt through this for what he wants to buy: a pleasant walk in these galleries will give him an opportunity of seeing at the same time all sorts of commodities in the world, as well as many of the best people in Petersburg.

They have established here both woollen and linen manufactures, of which the latter is brought to great perfection, as is evident from the quantities lately imported from thence. Here is also a workhouse, where an old Dutch woman has employed eighty girls at the spinning-wheel; and several regulations are made for improving the plantations of hemp and flax. Paper mills and powder mills have also been erected, with laboratories for gunnery and fire-works; and other places for preparing salt-petre and brimstone. They have set up here rope yards, like those in England and Holland, for the making of cables and tackling for the navy. The great forge at Petersburg furnishes anchors, and supplies all necessary sorts of iron-work for building ships and houses: and they burn bricks, and use them in their buildings, instead of wood. A printing-house is also established, and newspapers are now as regularly printed as in other countries of Europe: several useful books have been translated out of the High Dutch, and printed, the government encouraging the subjects to enquire into the state of the world abroad, instead of keeping them in ignorance, according to their ancient maxims.

There are a great number of palaces and fine buildings in Petersburg; of which the most remarkable are, a small house, which is the most ancient and respected, as being erected by Peter the Great. It is built of wood, and consists only of a little kitchen and a small bed-chamber, not bigger than a common bed-chamber, and an anti-chamber for business. A covered gallery goes round, where that monarch used to walk when it rained. At the end of this miniature palace is placed the first boat ever built at Petersburg: the house, gallery, boat, &c. are all, at present, sheltered with a cover of timber, to preserve them from the injuries of the weather. This little palace stands near the citadel, on the north side of the river Nieva; and on the south side of the same river there is another wooden palace, which was likewise erected by Peter the Great: it is large, contains many handsome rooms, rich apartments, &c. and adjoining to it are spacious gardens, pavilions, pleasure-houses, shell-work, water-works, fine statues, a

private play-house, and a large lake well stored with fish. Before this palace there is a small ship mounting six cannon, which was said to have been built, and afterwards presented to Peter the First, by a Russian peasant.

About half a mile further down, on the south side of the Nieva, is the winter-palace, which is a superb square stone building, the inside excelling the outside, though with respect to its external appearance it is deemed one of the most magnificent in Europe. The furniture is made of the noblest materials, and most excellent workmanship. The royal family, with the proper retinue, attendants, &c. are all lodged here; as are likewise five hundred of the military, who regularly mount guard, and are relieved every day. And upon a canal, at some little distance from the Nieva, there is another elegant wooden palace, built upon piles, and two others in an inferior style.

A noble seminary for the education of females only, and founded by the late empress Elizabeth, stands at a little distance from the town. The whole contains about eight hundred young ladies. The building is capacious and grand; and here children of distinction are kept separate from those of an inferior rank.

There are several admirable buildings on the great quay, or rather angle parade, which runs above a mile in length by the water side; and a bridge of pontons is built over the narrowest part of the water. Canals are cut from this excellent river to all parts of the city, the whole of which is laid out with great regularity; there is not any thing in it that looks old, though many things appear imperfect and unfinished. The buildings which are finished are handsome, and formed on a larger scale than is usually seen in other places.

A gentleman who was lately at Petersburg has favoured us with the following account of it: "The streets, says he, are mostly paved; but they have a custom here of laying, in many places, a flooring of timber on the ground. This, I am told, was yet more common formerly in Moscow, where, in the frequent fires they used to have, the street itself caught the flames, and the conflagration became terrible. The public buildings of different kinds are so prodigiously numerous in this city, that I am inclined to believe they constitute a fifth or sixth part of the whole capital. Some of them are stone, but the larger part are only brick or wood plastered." The same person observes, "Near the Nieva is a small palace, built by the present empress, and called, I know not why, the Hermitage; for it no more resembles our idea of a hermitage, than it does that of a temple; but when her majesty resides in this part of the building, she is in retreat, and there is no drawing-room or court. I was admitted a few days ago to see these apartments, which are very elegant, and furnished with great taste. There are two galleries of paintings, which have been lately purchased, at an immense expence, in Italy. The crown, which I saw in the palace itself, is perhaps the richest in Europe. It is shaped like a bonnet, and totally covered with diamonds. In the sceptre is the celebrated one purchased by prince Orloff for five hundred thousand rubles (a hundred and twelve thousand five hundred pounds) and presented by him to his sovereign mistress only a few years ago. It far exceeds Pitt's diamond in size, and is not inferior in water. Lapidaries declare it to be the most beautiful and rare ever brought from Golconda.

"One of the noblest monuments of the gratitude and veneration universally paid to Peter I. is an equestrian statue, which her present majesty ordered to be erected, and had been for some years under the hands of Monsieur Falconer, but which is now completely executed. In this production the artist has united the greatest simplicity with the truest sublimity of conception. No other statue, whether antient or modern, gave him the design, which is singular in its kind, and admirably adapted to express the character of the man, and of the people over whom he reigned. Instead of a pedestal adorned with inscriptions, or surrounded by slaves, he appeared mounted on a rock or stone of a prodigious size; up the ascent of which the horse labours, and appears nearly to have reached its summit. This attitude has given him room to exert great anatomical beauty and skill in the muscles of the horse's hind thighs and hams, on which the whole of his body is necessarily sustained. The czar's figure is full of fire and spirit; he sits on a bear-skin, and is clad in a simple habit, not characteristic of any particular country, but such as may be worn without violation of propriety by an inhabitant of any country. The following circumstantial account of the opening of this magnificent statue

has been lately transmitted to us from Petersburg, dated August 19, 1782.

"On Sunday last the celebrated brass equestrian statue of the Emperor Peter the First was opened to public view. At about five o'clock in the afternoon her Imperial Majesty, after having dined at the Hermitage, came in her barge, attended by several of the first nobility, and landed on the New Quay; from whence, on a platform covered with red baize, she proceeded to the senate-house; where, from a balcony handsomely fitted up for her Majesty's reception, she had a full view of the statue, the royal yachts on the river, of which there were several, all dressed in the various colours of different nations, and of the prodigious concourse of the people assembled on the occasion. On her arrival her Majesty found the statue inclosed with a screen, on which were painted rocks, uncultivated spaces, and other emblems of the rude state in which the emperor found his country. Her majesty had not been long on the balcony, when, on a signal given by a rocket, the screen, which concealed the statue, on a sudden, and as it were by magic, fell, and discovered one of the finest pieces of workmanship, I believe, that was ever known to any age or country. The sudden appearance of the stately figure, big with majestic fire, galloping up a precipice on a furious steed, most exquisitely finished, in all the action of contending eagerness, together with the firing of cannon from the castle, admiralty, and yachts, and a running fire of about ten thousand soldiers, produced an effect on the mind not easily described. After the firing ceased, and the Empress had contemplated the statue for some time with the greatest seeming satisfaction, all the regiments of guards, the regiment of artillery, and three other regiments, which were drawn up on the occasion, marched round it, lowering their colours as they passed by the balcony where the Empress was placed. After this part of the ceremony was ended, her majesty was rowed back to the Hermitage in the same manner she came. In the evening the city was illuminated, and every face manifested joy at the happy remembrance of the father of their country."

In the winter season, the Russians contrive to make the warmth of their houses suitable to the severity of the climate. They give a proper degree of heat to the different rooms, by means of an oven constructed with several flues, and their ovens consume a smaller quantity of wood than might at first be imagined; a single small faggot only is put in, and suffered to burn till the black thick smoke is evaporated. The chimney is then shut, by which the heat is retained, and the place kept warm for the space of twenty-four hours; and this fire serves not only to warm the rooms, but to dress the food. The windows, in the houses of the poorer sort of people, are very small, that as little cold as possible may be admitted; but in the houses of the wealthier sort, they are large; and in order to guard against the inclemencies of the weather, they have double glass frames, which are caulked up in the winter. All ranks of people are very expert and nice in regulating the proper heat in their houses by means of a thermometer, when they increase or diminish the heat to a great degree of exactness, by opening and shutting the flues.

They have here a set of Italian singers; besides which, there are French, German, and Russian players, who perform before the court in their respective languages. No person pays either to the play or concert, but none are allowed to enter except such as have tickets by authority. The play-house doors are guarded; and if any one should get in without a proper right, they would be severely punished. Some few years since, an English company of comedians went over to St. Petersburg, where they met with great countenance and encouragement.

The beautiful palace of Petershoff is situated about twenty miles west from Petersburg: it is built on an eminence, in a large garden, commanding a fine view, and surrounded by many out-houses, offices, &c. for servants and attendants. It faces the south, and in the front there is a beautiful canal of clear, transparent water, from which three fountains are supplied, and constantly play. When the empress is here, the guards are encamped in a part of the garden, where their tents make a very agreeable appearance. In speaking of one of these jet-d'eau's, or fountains, Doctor Cook says, "out of the water, much to my agreeable surprise, arose a dog and three ducks, made of copper or iron, and, in appearance, alive. The ducks flutter through the water quacking; the dog follows after them barking." There is, in a subterraneous place, a charming chime of bells, which play by water. The grotto, which is covered before by a cascade, has two entries.

entries; one on each side. The entries are guarded by statues, which, when you are in, prevent any from getting out till the keeper, by turning a handle, puts a stop to them. These statues emit so much water, by vomiting and shooting out of stone pistols and guns, that the keeper said, it would overwhelm any man.

Besides the curiosities before-mentioned, there is a beautiful gallery full of the finest china in the world; at one end of which is a small, but commodious room, with a bed in it, whither the empress sometimes retires to repose herself. The apartments are all splendid and nobly furnished, and among the paintings there are five matchless portraits of the sovereigns of Russia; namely, 1. Peter the Great. 2. The Livonian Villager, whose virtues raised her from a cottage to an imperial diadem, and to share the bed of Peter the Great. 3. The empress Ann. 4. The empress Elizabeth; and, 5. The sovereign now on the throne.

A few years ago there happened a most dreadful hurricane and inundation at Petersburg, which did incredible damage, and by which the lives and property of many persons were destroyed. The duchess of Kingston, who was there at the time, was a great sufferer by it; her yacht not only lost its rudder, but all its masts and sails; the organ, which cost her grace one thousand five hundred pounds, was entirely broke to pieces; and the elegant coach, which lay in the hold, totally destroyed: the loss was computed at upwards of three thousand pounds. The bridge of boats thrown across the river Nieva was entirely destroyed; so that the inhabitants have been obliged to pass that rapid river, which is about half a mile broad and very deep, in single boats, which was practised with great danger before Peter the Great would consent to the formation of the grand bridge of pontons. An account of this calamitous event was inserted in the London Gazette, October 18th, 1777, from a narrative dated at Petersburg, in the same year: and is as follows: "On Sunday last (September 1777,) an inundation happened here, more extensively destructive than has ever been remembered in these parts. A violent hurricane of wind at west south-west, which began about two o'clock in the morning, raised the water, in the short time of four hours, to the height of fourteen feet above the ordinary level of the Nieva, by which the whole town, and a great extent of the flat country in the neighbourhood, was rapidly overflowed. The water remained about half an hour at its extreme height; and the wind getting a little to the northward between six and seven o'clock it returned in a very short time to its usual bounds. It is impossible to estimate, with any degree of exactness, the loss which the state and individuals have suffered. The number of persons drowned must amount to several hundreds. In the best parts of the town many houses were unroofed, and the loss of liquors and other provisions in the cellars and lower apartments is very great. In the shops, which are all in the same quarter of the town, goods were destroyed to a very considerable amount. In the gardens of the summer-palace, great numbers of the finest trees are broken or torn up by the roots. The lower skirts of the town, where the houses are mostly of wood, and inhabited by the poorer sort of people, presented a scene of desolation which can be more easily imagined than described. Many persons were drowned in their beds, and others, who sought for safety from the waters on the roofs of their houses, were carried from thence by the violence of the wind; and those who escaped with life were left destitute of habitations and effects.

"Great damage is done at the quay of the exchange, and the lower magazines and warehouses. Numbers of barks, laden with iron, hemp, grain, wood, &c. to a very great amount, were flaved, sunk, or driven to pieces in the streets or fields. Several large vessels, lying between this place and Cronstadt, were driven ashore into the woods and gardens. Many of the country houses in the neighbourhood are destroyed. The village of Catherinehoff, and some others on the same coast, were entirely swept away, with all the cattle; and many lives were lost there, as well as on the side of the Galley Haven, where the ground is very low. The great bridge of boats over the Nieva was carried away, and most of the bridges in the town, except those on the new stone quay, no part of which has suffered any material damage, were torn up. We have the satisfaction, however, to hear, that the works or shipping at Cronstadt, have received little or no damage.

"It appears from accurate observations, that the waters were a foot and a half higher than in the great inundation

which happened here in the year 1752. The plays at the court theatre are stopped for some time, on account of this public calamity. Measures are taking to relieve the poor sufferers by every possible means.

"It gives us some satisfaction to add, after the above melancholy account, that the empress, with a degree of humanity, that will ever do honour to her character, ordered the royal coffers to be opened to those who have suffered most materially by the tempest; and that advice was received from St. Petersburg, that four of the ships, which were supposed to have been lost in the hurricane, were returned to that port, but in a very shattered condition; and likewise that nine of the English merchant ships had suffered."

Peter the Great, after having laid the foundation of his new city of Petersburg, and made some progress in the buildings, thought it necessary to have a convenient harbour, in which the shipping might ride secure; and, for this purpose, pitched upon the island of Retrisani, at the mouth of the gulph of Finland. There he built a new town called Cronstadt, and secured it with a castle called Cronlot, situated on a sand-bank near the side of Ingria; so that between the castle and the town, the shipping ride in a safe, deep and commodious harbour. The castle is built in the form of a round tower, and three tier of galleries, well furnished with cannon, surround it. Two small batteries are at present placed on the opposite island, and, in case of emergency, the piers of the harbour may be mounted with a considerable train of artillery.

There are many elegant houses between Cronstadt and Petersburg; and on an island formed by the river Nieva, near the western banks of the lake Ladoga, is the strong fortress and sea-port of Noteburg or Oresco. It was taken from the Swedes by Peter the Great, in the year 1702. The town of Nieuscham is demolished: Iwanogorod is a strong castle opposite the Narva, from which, at the distance of forty-five miles, is the fortress of Caporia, situated on the banks of a small river. Jama is another fortress, built on a river of the same name, fifteen miles to the north east of Iwanogorod.

S E C T. III.

Comprising the second Grand Division of RUSSIA, containing MUSCOVY PROPER, or WESTERN RUSSIA.

WESTERN Russia, or Muscovy Proper, contains twenty-two provinces; namely, 1. Pleskow, or Pskow; 2. Great Novogorod Veleki; 3. Twere; 4. Rzeva or Reschaw; 5. Biela or Bielski; 6. Smolensko; 7. Severia; 8. Czernichow; 9. Vorotin; 10. Rezan; 11. Bielgorod; 12. Mordoa; 13. Nisi-Novogorod; 14. Volodimer; 15. Sudal; 16. Moscow; 17. Rostow; 18. Yeroslawla; 19. Bilejefora or Relozero; 20. Vologda; 21. Cargapol; 22. Dwina.

I. The lordship of Pleskow or Pskow, is situate between the duchy of Novogorod on the east, Ingria and Estonia on the north, Livonia on the west, and the palatine of Polockz on the south. It was formerly a republic, after which it had the title of duchy. It was at length subdued by Iwan Basilowitz, anno 1509. It hath a lake of its name, which lies on the confines of Ingria and Livonia, and empties itself into the larger one of Peopus or Crudkow. It lies under fifty-six, fifty-seven, and fifty-eight degrees of latitude, and twenty-eight and thirty-two of east longitude.

The chief towns in it are, Pleskow, Abdova, Perzur, Ostrova, Fieburgh, Voronecks, and Postarzova.

Pleskow, the capital, is seated on the mouth of the river Muldow, on the right hand of the lake of its name. It is divided into four wards or quarters, each of which is encompassed with its own walls, and is moreover defended by a stout castle built on a high rock. It is a Russian archiepiscopal see, and a considerable populous city. It stands in fifty-seven degrees, forty minutes of latitude, and twenty-nine degrees thirty minutes of east longitude.

In this territory are some other inconsiderable cities, not worth farther notice, except for the strength and fortifications, which gave the late czar no small trouble to reduce; and are still carefully kept up, for the defence of this advanced frontier. But that of Pleskow is looked upon as the strongest in all the north part of Russia.

II. Great Novogorod Veleki, or the duchy of Novogorod, is situated on the east of Pleskow, last mentioned, with Ingria, and the lake of Ladoga, on the north; on the east of the duchy of Belozera and Twere; and the province of Rzeva on the south. It is divided into

into five principal districts, viz. Ob Oneskaia Petina or district on this side the Onega, Grafina Pagost or Grafinean tribe, Vichny Volock and Zauzolski Volock, or the republics of Vichni and Zauzolski, and Besvolki Petina, or the dry or barren quarter. It hath four lakes, called the Ilmen, Voldai, Lutinsch, and Mstim. It hath no less than sixteen rivers, the most considerable of which are the Wolohowa, Vitegra, Bagda-konsa, Niesca, Mstasua, Pailamil, Vidoca Phchega, and Longa. The most considerable cities and towns in it are, the Great Novogorod or Novogorod Veliki, Staraia or Old Russia, Nova or New Russia, Pareoff, Vitzgora al. Vitegra, Ochloma, Tiffina, Ladoga al. Ladiskia, Soltza, Gorodna, Polissa, Crocka, Quelcor, Niewbochi, and S. Nicolas.

This duchy is called Novogorod Veliki, or superior, to distinguish it from the Inferior or Nisi Novogorod. Its extent from east to west, on the southern part, is computed to be near two hundred and fifty miles, but grows more and more narrow towards the north. Its chief produce is corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and leather; in all which it drove a considerable traffic, when it was governed by its own princes, though, even then, it was very often obstructed by its wars with Moscow; but since it has become under its subjection, it is much decayed from its flourishing condition. In the middle of the southern part is the lake Ilmen, out of which flows the river Wolohowa abovementioned, which passes through part of this province into the Ladogan lake.

Novogorod Veliki, the capital of this province, called by the French, Neugard, and by the Dutch, New Garten, stands on the Wolohowa abovementioned, and is a large and considerable place, very populous and well fortified. But it is plain from the remains of some old walls, towers, steeples, &c. that it was formerly a great deal more spacious: and, indeed, when one beholds the great number of those towers and steeples which it hath still standing, one is apt to expect to find something grand in the place, whereas it is indeed but ill built, the walls being made of timber and mud, as well as the greatest part of the houses. This change is owing to the several disasters that it suffered from the Polanders, Russians, and other nations; for it was once in such a flourishing condition, that it was a common saying, Who can hurt God or Novogorod? but since it fell into the hands of the Russians, its great trade and splendor have sensibly decreased. It is however an archbishopric of the Russian rite. The cathedral, called Santa Sophia, is large and beautiful, though in the antique style.

The castle is on the other side of the river, and is joined to the city by a large bridge, famed for the many thousands of clergy, citizens, and others, whom the tyrant of Novogorod, duke Iwan Basilowick, caused to be thrown from it into the river, anno 1569. The castle is the residence of the Vaivode, and near unto it is the archiepiscopal palace, and a monastery dedicated to the miraculous St. Anthony of Padua, mentioned a little higher. There is another monastery, called Perunki Monastir, said to have been built on the ruins of an antient temple, dedicated to Perun, or the God of Fire, formerly worshipped here, under the figure of a deity, holding a thunderbolt in its hand. Here are besides about a hundred churches, most of whose spires and towers are covered with copper gilt, especially the cathedral; and about seventy monasteries. It stands in fifty-eight degrees twenty minutes of latitude, and thirty-four degrees of east longitude, about one hundred and fifty miles north-eastward from Pleskow, one hundred and six almost south from Petersburg, and two hundred and ten north west from Moscow.

Staraia, Stara Russia or Old Russia, from which some authors affirm the country of Russia to have had its name, stands on the opposite shore of the lake Ilmen, from whence flows the river Lovat, which runs through the town, out of which the inhabitants make a good salt, of which they drive a considerable traffic. It stands about forty-two miles south of Novogorod, and is well built and populous.

The town of New Russia stands on the above-mentioned river, about ten miles from Old Russia, but does not contain any thing worthy of particular notice.

Ladoga is about eighty miles north of Novogorod, in latitude fifty-nine forty-five, and thirty-four forty each. It stands on the left shore of the river Velcot or Velkova, which falls into the Ladogan lake.

Mologa stands on the confines of the duchy of Belozera, and at the confluence of the rivers Nissa and Wolga.

St. Nicholas is a large and populous town, near the

Wolga, and is famed for a spacious monastery dedicated to that saint.

III. The duchy of Twere is small and compact, but populous and fertile, and takes its name from its capital, and that from the river Twerza. It is bounded on the north and west by the Great Novogorod last described, on the east by the duchy of Rostow, and on the south by that of Moscow, and the province of Rzeva. Its chief cities and towns are, Twere, Tuerlock, Wolkofkoi Starica, Prezista, Oleschna, Coffin, Sattrite, Gerodin al. Gorodna, Clin, Maigrova, Czornaia-Sloboda, and Mitre.

The capital city Twere, is situate on the confluence of the rivers Twerza and Wolga; which last is by this time become so wide, that they are obliged to cross it in ferry-boats. It is pleasantly situated on the side of a rising hill, on the banks of the Twerza, from which it has its name; and is a large, rich, and populous city, having no less than sixty churches, and an episcopal see; and is the station of a mint. It stands about sixty leagues east south-east of Pleskow, and twenty-five north west of Moscow. Latitude fifty-six fifteen, and longitude thirty-seven twenty east.

A little below it, on the same river, stands the large town of Terfack, Torfack, or Tarfack, about twenty miles north from Twere. The other towns have nothing that merits particular attention.

IV. The duchy of Rzeva or Reschaw, is bounded on the north, by that of Twere last described, and by that of Moscow; on the south, by the principality of Biela, and palatinate of Witepsk; on the west by the lordship of Pleskow; and on the east, by part of the territory of Moscow. The towns belonging to it are,

Rzeva the defart, Rzeva Volodimeriski, Toropeckz, Velikie-Louki, Borgo Cove, Boroveo, Zari, Lubiekze, and Dudure. Most of them are inconsiderable.

Rzeva the defart, so called because ruined and abandoned, was the capital, and stood on the western side of the province, on the south-west of Velikie-Louki; but hath yielded its dignity to Rzeva Volodimeriski.

This town is pleasantly situated on the Wolga, on the eastern side of this province, near the small lake Wolga, which is one of the head springs of that river. It is said to have been built by prince Volodimer, who made very considerable conquests in this and the neighbouring provinces. It is but indifferently built, but well peopled, and drives some sort of trade in hemp, fish, and other articles.

The town of Toropeckz is small, but neat, and pleasantly situated on a little river that falls into the Dwina.

V. The principality of Biela or Belski, is bounded by Rzeva, on the north and east, by Lithuania, and the palatinate of Witepsk on the west; and by Smolensko on the south. It was formerly governed by its own princes, though subject to Lithuania; and was then a considerable place, till subdued by the czar Basilowitz. It stands on the river Opscha or Osca, which discharges itself into the Dwina.

VI. The province of Smolensko extends about two hundred miles from east to west, and is usually stiled the duchy and palatinate of Smolensko. It hath, on the north, the principality of Biela; Lithuania, on the west; the duchy of Severia, on the south; and Moscow, on the east. It hath been alternately subdued by the Poles and Russians, and at length was finally ceded to the latter, by treaty, towards the conclusion of the last century. It is watered by the Nieper or Boristhenes; the land is in general defart; but the inhabitants derive some profit from the skins of the wild beasts, with which it abounds.

The capital is called by the same name, and is agreeably situated on the banks of the Nieper, near the confines of Lithuania. It is a large, populous, and well finished city, and contains eight thousand houses tolerably well built. It is two hundred and ten miles from Moscow, has a citadel and garrison to defend it, was once a metropolis, and is now a bishop's see. The surrounding woods are said to produce the best furs in Russia.

The town of Dragobusa is situated on the same river, about fifteen leagues from Smolensko, but is of no considerable note.

VII. The duchy of Severia or Severiski, is situated to the westward of Little Russia, to the eastward of Czernikow, to the westward of Bielgorod, and to the southward of Smolensko. It had formerly princes of its own, till the country was subdued by the czar Basilowitz. It afterwards fell into the hands of Sigismund III. king of Poland, who incorporated it with his own dominions; but it was at length finally ceded to Russia, as a member of the antient palatinate of Smolensko.

The chief rivers that water this province are, the Ubick, Dwina, and Nevin. The northern part is very full of woods; but the rest is fertile and populous, though woody. In the southern part there is one vast, extensive forest, which is computed to be one hundred miles square.

The chief town of this duchy, named Nogogrodeck, stands on the river Domza, and is tolerably well fortified in the Russian manner.

Branski, or Branzo, is another small, but neat and strong town in this duchy; it is about sixty miles from Nogogrodeck.

Demetriowick is situated on the most northern verge of the province; was formerly in the palatinate of Smolensko, and stands about forty leagues south-east of that capital.

VIII. The duchy of Czernichow is bounded on the west and south, by the river Nieper, and the palatinates of Kiow; and on the north-east by Servia and part of Lithuania. The river Domza waters it; but the land is exceedingly steril. The principal town, called Czernichow, is small, thinly peopled, and inconsiderable. The town of Borma is only noticed for some fortifications to guard it against Poland. Others, still less worth mentioning, are, Omby, Perecop, Vibbi, Sosnica, Kwalefin, Pusca, &c.

IX. The principality of Vorotin, or Vorotinski, is bounded northward by the river Ugra, and part of the duchy of Rezan; on the south by Lesser Tartary, or the land of the Cossacks; on the west by the duchy of Severia; and, on the east, by another part of the said duchy of Rezan.

That portion of the province which is situated near the Lesser Tartary has been almost desolated by the continual incursions of the Cossacks; but the other parts, which are watered by the river Occa, are populous and fertile.

Verotin, the capital of the province, stands on the banks of the Occa. It is only a small town, but well secured by a castle and other fortifications; and higher upon the same river stand the towns of Bolgoff, Aarol, and Crom, which are the strongest and most considerable in this province.

X. The duchy of Refan or Rhesan (now called the province of Veronis) includes a very large tract of land lying between the Don, or Tanais, and the Occa, and extending near three hundred miles in length. It is watered by the above rivers; hath Little Russia to the south, Smolensko to the west; Nisi-Novogorod to the east, and the duchy of Moscow to the north. The Russians deem the soil of this province the most fertile in the universe; and affirm, that the corn grows so thick and strong, that a horse cannot make his way through it. This must be owing to the quantity of salts with which the snow enriches the ground by laying so many months upon it, as was hinted at the beginning of this article. The people here, likewise, are said to be courageous and warlike, civil, and polite, and so very numerous, that they are able to send fifteen thousand foot and forty thousand horse to the wars.

This country was formerly governed by its own dukes, who were esteemed very powerful princes; but it hath long since been subdued by the czar, and become subject to Russia, since which time it hath decreased much of its ancient splendor and traffic. It continues, however, still fertile in corn, millet, and other grain, and abounds with all kinds of game, as the rivers do with fish; particularly the great river Don, which hath its spring head in this province, and runs almost across it, and, after a long serpentine course, discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis at Asoph.

These towns were most of them formerly considerable, rich, and well peopled; but have been so miserably plundered and abused by the Crim-Tartars in the year 1568, and following, that they have not been able to recover themselves since; particularly

Refan or Rhesan, the ancient capital of this province, was formerly a fair, large, and populous city, and advantageously situated on the Occa. It is chiefly famed for the noble resistance which it made against the Tartars in the year 1570, by which the whole empire was preserved from their fury, though the city itself and almost the whole duchy, were destroyed by them. Since that time, the fertility of that ground, which reaches from this city and the river Occa, quite to the intrenchments which were afterwards made on the confines of Tartary, to prevent the incursions of those free-looters, induced the Moscovites to gather up all the dispersed inhabitants of this once flour-

ishing place, and to cause the materials of the ruined city to be conveyed about eight leagues off, and to build the new town with them called Peresta Rezanski, because many of the inhabitants of Peresta went likewise and settled there. All that the antient Rezan now retains of its former grandeur, is its archiepiscopal see, and its being still the residence of that metropolitan.

The town of Voronetz, Woronitz, commonly now Veronis, is the most considerable place in this duchy, on account of the great ships of war built there by the direction and inspection of the late czar Peter the Great; it being situated on a small river of its own name, which falls into the Don, or Tanais, a little below it, and is deep enough to carry them into the great river, and thence down to the Black sea, to which that prince opened himself a free passage by the taking of Asoph. It is situated on a hill, and surrounded with a wooden wall almost rotten. It is divided into three parts; one of which, called Jakatoff, is the common residence of the Russian merchants: it hath large and extensive rope walks, and a spacious subterranean magazine of powder without the walls.

On the declivity of the hill, and along the water-side, are several spacious houses, some of them four hundred paces long; which belong some to the Russian admirals, vice-admirals, and persons of rank. Most of them stand facing the citadel, and behind them are streets for those that are employed in ship-building. The city stands on the west side of the Veronis, and the citadel on the other; and a large bridge is built over it for communication between them.

The citadel is a large square building, flanked with a tower on each corner, hath large apartments in it, and makes a great figure without. It is surrounded with strong pallisadoes, and a wet fosse, and is defended by a strong garrison. This is the chief magazine in this part of Russia, in which there are about one hundred and fifty cannon, mostly unmounted for speedy carriage, conveniences for ship-building, and apartments three stories high for all kinds of naval stores; and the town is computed to have about ten thousand souls in it. There are some handsome churches in it after the Russian taste; and at a small distance from the town there is a high mountain almost mouldered away, and full of cracks, on which are some ancient monuments. It stands nearly twenty-five leagues south of Moscow, in about fifty-five degrees forty minutes of latitude, and forty degrees twenty-five minutes of east longitude.

The town of Taverhoff was built by Peter the Great, on the south banks of the river Veronis, and two thirds of the town are washed by that river and the Don. The place is very healthy, on account of the circumjacent low flat grounds being covered either with wood or water. This town is regularly built with streets, intersecting each other at right angles; but the houses are of wood, as is a palace which stands at the west end of the town. The citadel is made of earthen ramparts, pallisadoes, with bastions at the corners, mounted with cannon. Taverhoff itself is inhabited principally by sailors and fishermen; and what is very singular, three thousand soldiers, who are the garrison, and appointed to defend the place, dwell all together in a neighbouring village, and not in the town.

The other towns in this duchy, worth mentioning, are Donkarod, a large place about fourteen leagues south from Rezan, situate near the spring-head of the Don, or Tanais, and Toul, or Tula, on the western confines, near the borders of Vorotin, which is defended by a stout castle, built by the czar Basilowick soon after he took it.

XI. The province of Bielgorod: it was formerly called Organia; but we find it stiled, in the map of the curious Mr. Thesing, the palatinate of Belgorod, or Bielgorod. It is a large tract of land lying on the south of the province of Rezan last described; and is bounded by it on the north, as it is on the south by the Nogay, and Don Cossacks; on the west, by the Ukraine and palatinate of Kiow; on the east, by the Don; and, farther north, by the Wolga. It is watered by several other rivers, and hath a soil sufficiently fertile, were it well cultivated; but its vicinity to Little Tartary exposes it so much to the continual inroads of the Cossacks above mentioned, that it is neither rich, fruitful, nor well inhabited. It hath a considerable number of small towns, most of them poor, and half-ruined; but it hath no cities, except that of Bielgorod, from which it hath its name, and which is itself hardly remarkable upon any other account. The Don Cossacks on the south-east, called also Rodoni Donki, because

because they chiefly inhabit along the Don, and the Nogay Cossacks on the south-west, are either very boggy or woody, and have few towns in their territory; which, with the palatinate of Bielgorod, was formerly part of Tartary, but hath been conquered from it by the Russians.

Having now gone through the western provinces of Russia, from the lakes Ladoga and Onega, to the southernmost part of it, called Little Tartary; we shall proceed towards the north, where, in our course, we meet the provinces above-named; the first of which is called

XII. Mordwa, or Mordva, and the inhabitants Morduates, or Mordua Tartars. They are surrounded on the south by the Lesser Tartary and Rezan, last described; on the west, by the duchies of Moscow, Volodimir, and Nisi-Novogorod, or Lesser Novogorod; on the north, by part of the same last named, and the river Wolga; and, on the east, by the southern Czeremisse. The inhabitants of this province are said to be the most civilized of all the Tartarian Moscovy, and have some towns; the chief of which are Adema, about forty leagues east from Volodimir, and twenty from Nisi-Novogrodeck; and Moruma, seated on the river Occa; but neither of them worth describing. The people here are heathen, and worship one God, and a devil, the former out of love, the latter out of fear; but have neither temples, altars, or priests. Their country is small, and full of large forests, and is by M. de L'Isle placed between the rivers Occa, Sura, and Moksha-Reka.

The province or district of Czeremisse, or Scheremisse, which lies on the east-side of the former, is a vast tract of land, extending from fifty-four to sixty-one degrees of latitude; and is divided by the river Wolga into two parts; the southern district, which adjoins to Mordva, has the name of Nagorho, which implies mountainous; the northern is called Logoai, or lowland.

The inhabitants, who are deemed the most savage of all the Tartars, breed vast herds of cattle. They are without towns, faithless in their dealings, superstitious in their notions, and cruel in their dispositions. Some are called Mahometans; but the greater part, especially towards Cazan, know nothing either of that or the Christian religion. Their way of naming their children is, by chusing a day six months after birth, and giving the name of the first person they meet.

They have no notion of a future life; but believe that God blesses, and the devil punishes, according to their desert in this life. They go to a place called Nemda, forty leagues from Cazan, full of marshes, to pay their devotions to the deity; and believe if they go empty handed, the devil will punish them with a lingering and incurable disease. They worship sun, moon, stars, and animals; but to God they sacrifice a horse, ox, or ram, roasted and basted with liquor made of honey. A man is allowed three or four wives.

The women wear only a coarse linen gown, which covers their whole body; and the head-tire of the married ones rises over their heads like a horn growing out of their skulls, at the top of which hangs a little bell by a silk string of several colours. The men have much the same garb about their bodies, with drawers under. The married shave their heads, and the unmarried let their hair grow to a considerable length. They are subject to the czar, and are free from all tribute except voluntary presents. Their language is peculiar, understood neither by Russian nor Tartar.

XIII. The duchy or lordship of Nisi-Novogorod lies to the south-west of Cazan, and to the east of Moscow. It is watered by the Wolga and Occa, abounds with forests, but is nevertheless pleasant, populous, and fertile.

Nisi-Novogorod, the capital city, is situated on a rock at the confluence of the Wolga and Occa, surrounded by a stone wall, and defended by a strong citadel. Near the river-side, and before the stately gate of the city called Iwanoffski, there is a spacious market-place. A noble street intersected by others, runs through the whole town; the cathedral, which is built after the model of Santa Sophia at Constantinople, is a stately edifice; it has five cupolas beautifully varnished with green, and adorned at the top with elegant crosses. The superb archiepiscopal palace is near the cathedral, but contains a church within its own walls. The governor's palace, and the chancery, are noble fabricks, and the houses in general are well built of timber. The city itself is small, but the suburbs are large, and the whole has a good trade, and is well furnished with provisions. The luxuries, as well as the necessaries of life, are remarkably cheap; but the inhabitants of both sexes are given to excessive drinking.

The village of Basilgorod is said to have neither walls nor stone houses, either public or private. It stands at the foot of a rising ground near the Wolga, and was originally founded by the czar Basilus, as a check upon the Tartars; but as the Russian frontiers at present extend much farther, the fortifications have been suffered to go to decay. The other towns of inferior note are, Pastoff, Balagna, Slaboda, and Nisi-Novogorod, the latter of which is computed to be distant from Moscow about eight hundred wersts, or sixty German, and one hundred common leagues, by water, but by land it is not above an eighth part so far.

XIV. The province, called also the duchy, of Volodimer, is bounded by that of Nisi-Novogorod, on the east; by the duchy of Moscow, on the south; by those of Rostow and Susdal, on the west; and the river Wolga, on the north. It is in many parts fertile, well watered by the rivers Occa, Clesma, and Wolga, and hath a great number of forests and fens.

The capital city Volodimer, stands about seventy-five miles from Moscow to the north-east; it is situated on a fine hill, which is beautifully diversified with plantations. Hence a most noble appearance is exhibited to the distant eye. It was built by prince Volodimer, in the commencement of the tenth century, and he and his successors resided here till the court was removed to Moscow, since which period its splendor hath gradually decayed. There are, however, seven or eight fine stone churches in it, and several more of wood, and the territory about it is extremely fertile. The other towns are, Gorachowitz; Baluchna, which stands on the banks of the Wolga; and Iles, situated on the river Clesma.

XV. The duchy of Susdal is bounded, on the north, by the Wolga; on the south and east, by Volodimer; and, on the west, by the duchies of Rostow and Jeroslaw. It is very narrow, but extends in length near one hundred and twenty miles, and is watered by several rivers, which render the low lands exceedingly rich and fertile. It however contains many forests, which are well stored with fallow and other game, and with wild beasts, whose furs bear a good price. This duchy was bestowed, by the czar Jeroslaws, on his son Andrew, who became a branch of the dukes of Suiski, from whom Basilowitz Suiski was descended, who was chosen czar after the defeat of the sham Demetrius, as was hinted at in the beginning of this article. John Basilowitz subdued this whole country in 1565, and incorporated it with his own estates.

Its chief towns are Susdal, the capital, Castro-Moigorod, Louch, and Yourieff.

The town of Susdal is situate on the river Clesma, on the southern part of the duchy. It is an archiepiscopal see, and was formerly the metropolis of Russia, but is gone to decay since the seat was removed from it. It is built mostly of wood, after the Russian manner, and retains but little of its pristine grandeur. It is, however, famed for a stately monastery of nuns, and for some other ancient buildings. It stands about seven leagues north-west from Volodimir, and twenty north-north-east from Moscow; latitude fifty-six degrees twenty-five minutes, longitude forty degrees east.

XVI. The province of Moscow, or Moscovy, properly so called, to distinguish it from the great empire of which it is the principal province, bears also the name of duchy, because, for a long time, the princes of it took only upon themselves the title of dukes. It hath its name from its capital, Moscow, or Moscova; and this from the river of that name on which it is situated.

This province is bounded on the north by the duchies of Twere, Rostow, Susdal, and Volodimer, already described; on the south, by that of Rezan, from which it is parted by the river Occa; on the east, by the little principality of Cachine and the same river Occa, which parts it from Nisi-Novogorod; and on the west, by the duchies of Rzeva, Biela, and Smolensko. Its extent, from east to west, is computed about sixty-eight leagues, or a little above two hundred miles; and its breadth, from north to south, about thirty-three leagues, or one hundred miles.

The chief rivers that run through it are, the Moskva, Occa, and Clesma; all which fall into the Wolga: and on the western side of this province is a large forest, out of which flows that famous one called the Borysthene, which, crossing the duchy of Smolensko, makes its course to Ukrania, Lithuania, and Poland. The soil, however, is nothing near so fertile as in some of the provinces we have lately gone through; but the air, though sharp, is here very healthy; which, with the advantage of its situation,

tion, amidst some of the best provinces, induced some of the monarchs to make it their chief residence, and the metropolis of the empire.

The chief cities and towns are, Moscow, the capital, Tretyza, Columna, Colomenko, Mosaisk, Wiefma, Golutwina-Slaboda, and Dnitroff.

The city of Moscow, or Moskova, which is the greatest in the whole Russian empire, is seated in a fine spacious plain, on the river of its name, over which it hath a stately bridge of twelve arches, of a prodigious height and breadth, because that river often overflows. It was built by prince Gafschin, on the design of a Polish monk, and is the only stone bridge that we know of in all Russia. The town stands in a gravelly soil, and wholesome air, and almost in the centre of the best provinces of Moscovy. It was founded in the year 1334, and we are told very strange things concerning its largeness, populousness, and number of houses, which it seems once amounted to above eighty thousand; though, if we may guess at these by what they are now, the far greater part of them might be more properly called low wooden huts than houses; on which account, this city has been always liable to such violent conflagrations as seldom failed of consuming near two parts in three of it.

It was taken, and almost burnt down, by the Tartars, in 1572, and by the Poles, in 1611, in which last, we are told, forty-one thousand houses were destroyed, besides the vast numbers of men and women that perished, either in the flames, or by the sword. Notwithstanding which loss, we find in 1662, when lord Carlisle was ambassador there from king Charles II. it was so well recovered as to be twelve miles in compass, full of houses and inhabitants; insomuch that the number of the former is, by the lowest calculations, said to have amounted to forty thousand; and by the Russians affirmed to have been about double that number.

This city stands about six hundred and fifty miles from Caffa in Crim Tartary, nine hundred and fifty miles north-east from Constantinople, seven hundred and twenty east from Cracow, six hundred and sixty east from Stockholm, and one thousand three hundred and twenty from London; latitude fifty-five degrees forty-two minutes; longitude thirty-eight degrees forty-five minutes east. It is of a circular form, and consists of four distinct parts, or quarters, all surrounded with a distinct wall; viz. 1. Cataigorod. 2. Czargorod. 3. Skorodom. 4. Strelitze-Slaboda, so called because it was formerly the quarter of the Strelitzes, or czar's guards, mentioned hereafter. The Cataigorod, or middle city, is surrounded with a brick wall; and on this stands the castle, which is two miles in circuit, and fortified with three stout walls, stately towers, and a fosse: and in the castle are, 1. Two palaces of the czars, one of timber, the other of stone, and built after the Italian manner. 2. The patriarchal palace, a large antient building. 3. The exchequer, chancery, and other offices. 4. The grand magazine. 5. Two handsome monasteries. 6. Five large churches, among which is that noble one of St. Michael, in which are, among other enrichments, the tombs of the great dukes, or czars. We omit several other stately buildings that are in this great castle, at whose gate stands that stately antient fabric called the church of Jerusalem; and fronting the castle is the great market and monstrous bell, mentioned farther on. This quarter is washed on the south-west by the river Mosca, and on the north, or north-west, by the Negliga, which falls into the former on the back of the castle. It is called Cataigorod, not on account of its being situated in the middle of the city, as Olearius fancies, but from Catai, the antient and Russian name of China, because the chief merchandizes sold in it came from that country: so that the name implies the same as the Chinese city.

The quarter called Czargorod, or ducal city, encompasses the Cataigorod, and is itself surrounded with a white stone wall called Biela Stena; whence it is also called Biela Gorod, or White City. It contains, among other buildings, the great arsenal, and is watered by the Negliga, which runs through it, and thence flows into the ditch that surrounds the middle city.

The Skorodom, or Scoradum quarter, stands on the north-west side of the Czargorod, and is chiefly inhabited by timber-mongers and carpenters, who sell houses ready made. These houses are moveable, and sold very cheap, and in great numbers: and, indeed, considering the frequent fires that happen in this city, owing, mostly, either to their drunkenness, a reigning vice here; or to their neglect of putting out the candles which they light to some favourite

faint in their houses and chambers; they have need of such a large market to repair to on those occasions. It is called Scoradum, which, in the Russian language, signifies done in haste, alluding to the mud wall that surrounds it. And it well deserves that name, if what they tell us be true, that it was finished in four days, on a report of the Tartars approaching, though it was fifteen or sixteen miles in compass, and the earth every where supported by planks and beams of fir.

The quarter, called Strelitze-Slaboda, formerly that of the soldiers or guards, stands on the east and south-east side of the Cataigorod and the castle; is surrounded and fortified with wooden ramparts; and is divided from the rest by the river Mosca; for which reason it is styled suburb, or slaboda.

As the houses are so meanly built, for the most part, except those of the noblemen, gentlemen, and rich merchants, the furniture of the inside cannot be expected but to be of a piece; so that, excepting the lives and merchandize that may be lost in such frequent conflagrations, the damage is generally looked upon as so inconsiderable, that they never attempt to extinguish the fire, but by pulling down such a great number of them as will prevent its spreading farther. But the merchants who have much to lose, take care to deposit their choicest wares in vaults of stone, which are proof against such disasters.

There are reckoned in this whole city about three thousand such houses of stone, or brick; which, if they stood close to one another, would make a noble shew; but they stand at such vast distances from each other, and are intermingled with such long rows of these wooden huts, that they are almost lost, especially as they do not stand in the streets, but, like most of our colleges at Cambridge, on the backside of them, for the convenience of large courts and gardens, which most of them have, spacious and in ample order, and surrounded with high and strong walls, to keep off thieves and fire. The streets are not paved with stones, but boarded with thick fir planks; and the description we have given of the houses may afford some idea of their beauty.

Their churches and chapels, including those that belong to monasteries, are so numerous, as to be computed by some to amount to above one thousand five hundred, and by others to two thousand: and some of them are very large and stately; that, particularly, which is in the Kremlin, or palace in the castle, is a vast, antient, massy building: on the right side of the altar is the czar's throne, on the left that of the patriarch; and in the body of the church hangs a chandelier, of immense weight and value. The very jewels, and other costly ornaments, that enrich a picture of the Virgin Mary here, are valued at half a tun weight in gold, besides a vast number of chalices, pixes, patens, statues, and other church utensils of gold and silver, finely wrought, and enriched with precious stones; a vast number of other priestly vestments of great value, and an immense quantity of donatives and presents offered to the reliques of three eminent Russian saints; which makes the treasures of this church equal to that of any European cathedral.

The learned and ingenious Dr. Cook has favoured us with the following account of the celebrated great bell of Moscow: "I went, says he, to the great bell, which was then in a large pit. A fire had about two months before burnt down about two thirds of this great city; and the belfry, being all of timber, shared the same fate; the bell fell into the bottom of the pit, and had a piece broken out of its edge, large enough to admit a man into it. Its weight is four hundred and forty-three thousand seven hundred and seventy-two pounds, and its height about twenty-one feet four inches and a half. I then went to the top of a very high tower called Joan Velike, or the Great John. From this tower I had a complete view of the whole city, which indeed made a grand appearance. The weather being very cold, the Russians heat their stoves before day-light, and make use of fire at no time of the day, except to get dinner ready, so that the view is never obstructed by the smoke but at these times. On the top of this tower there are three bells, the least of which, I think, exceeds in size the largest in London. The antient imperial palace, which is a large stone Gothic building, is under the tower. All these which I have mentioned, and all the imperial antient archives and different courts of justice, are in that part of the city called the Crimline, said to be about two thousand and ninety paces in circumference, and is surrounded by a high brick wall."

The magnificent church of the Saboor is ninety feet in length, hath a stately dome supported by four large pillars, and

and is, though in the antient stile, quite superb within and without, and ninety feet in length. That of St. Michael is the repository of the dead czars, and of all the royal family of the male sex. The bodies of the princesses of the blood are interred in the stately abbey of the nuns called Tzudoff Monastir, in the same castle, and near the church above-mentioned. The tombs of the princes who never reigned here, are in a separate chapel. But nothing is more magnificent than the palls with which their coffins are covered; not constantly indeed, but only on holidays; those of the czars, particularly, are of the finest velvet, and have either a massy or embroidered golden crucifix upon them, of curious workmanship, and enriched with a vast variety of costly ornaments, especially inscriptions, which are mostly done with pearls and other precious stones of great value.

Here are many monasteries of men and women, not only in the city and castle, but in the suburbs and avenues of the town. We have no room to enter into a detail of them; we can only say in general, that they are, next to the palaces and noblemens houses, some of the best edifices in the city; the founders of them having spared no cost to adorn them with curious architecture, paintings, gardens, and every thing that is convenient and beautiful. The only one we shall mention here, is that called Dewitze Monastir, about a mile out of the city; and is that in which the ambitious princess Sophia, who had hatched so many plots against her brother the late czar Peter I. was, at length, confined, and ended her days. It is situated on a spacious plain, and hath three hundred nuns belonging to it, who lead a very regular life, and never stir out of their limits, as some other sorts are permitted to do: these are only allowed, on holidays, to walk on the terraces round their gardens, which are raised to a convenient height for them to enjoy the prospect of the adjacent plain.

Peter I. the late czar, founded here three colleges, which he took care to fill up with men versed in arts and sciences, and all kinds of literature, for the polishing of the next springing generation. The first is for humanity, rhetoric, and philosophy; the second for mathematics; and the third for navigation, astronomy, and other sciences subservient to it. In all these the youths that are taught are kept under strict discipline, and have, at the same time, all due encouragement to excel in their respective studies. To these the same prince added a dispensatory, which is not only one of the finest structures in Moscow, but, by all report, one of the best furnished with all sorts of medicines, drugs, &c. in all Europe. It is put under the care of some Germans, who are allowed the best masters in that art, though the most slovenly in their compositions, they never studying to please the eye or taste in their prescriptions, as we do in England, but nauseate their patients by the inelegance of their compositions, and, in that sense, may do best for that country. This dispensatory hath a yearly revenue of twenty thousand rubles, to renew their *Materia Medica*; and furnishes not only all the army, but likewise, all the principal cities in the empire with medicines.

In this city the courts of judicature, custom-house, and other offices, are generally large, and built of stone; and some of them rather resemble a gaol, and, indeed, are such, in some sense; they having apartments for debtors, as well as criminals, who are kept there chained up. But this, and other particulars relating to the political government of this city, we shall avoid enlarging upon; and only observe here, for the benefit of those who may have occasion to visit these parts, that though justice is, in general, administered with some strictness and severity, yet the Russians being naturally lazy, and given to drinking, the whole city swarms with beggars and vagabonds, and mostly of such a sturdy breed, that it is dangerous to deny them an alms. This makes it very dangerous to walk the streets in the night; for they generally lurk in corners, with a short truncheon, or bludgeon, in their hands, which they throw at the heads of passengers, with such dexterity, that they seldom fail of knocking them down; after which, they rob and murder them, and go off. These disasters happen more frequently, on holidays, and especially during the carnival; and when a person is found murdered, they carry the body to a certain place, where it lies exposed a day or two; and, if it is not owned, it is flung into a deep large pit, made to serve on such occasions; and on the Whitsuntide holidays some priests come thither, to say mass for the souls of the deceased.

Moscow is much decayed from its antient grandeur and opulence, since the building of the city of Petersburg, and the court so often repairing thither; however, it is still

very full of inhabitants; and all kinds of provisions are brought in, in great plenty, and sold very cheap. Fish is the only dear food, occasioned both by the number of inhabitants, and the four lents, and other fasts, that are observed by the Russians; and this great cheapness hath so far lowered the price of the land all about the country, that the nobility and gentry are great sufferers by it, their estates being reduced to little more than one third of what they formerly brought in, when the city was in a flourishing state.

We cannot omit saying a word or two of its fine canal, made by the order and direction of the late Peter the Great, to open a communication between this metropolis and his new-built and favourite city of Petersburg, and by that means, to the Baltic and German Ocean. This great and noble work, which has been some time finished, at an immense charge and labour, between two cities, which, in a direct line, stand near ninety leagues asunder, begins at Petersburg, on the river Nieva, or Neva, which empties itself into the gulph of Finland, and, going up that river quite to the lake of Ladoga, formerly described, crosses it at the south end, and enters into the Woltoff, another river, which flows thither from the province of Novorogod. From the capital of that province, begins what is properly called the artificial canal, which, passing through the territories of Brognitz, Chrestitz, Chilolova, Witschan-Voloscha, Torschock, the province of Twere, and the district of Kiln, reaches, at length, the city of Moscow, and enriches it by the vast quantities of merchandizes that are brought to and from thence.

A late traveller into Russia gives the following account of the monastery and church of Jerusalem: "The church, bishop's, and priests houses, are all inclosed with high brick walls; the wall, forming one side of the bishop's palace, is built on a beautiful detached hill, having on the east, north, and west, the finest lawns in the world, through which glides a noble river. In the plain, upon the banks of the river, stands the builder's romantic house, all built of stone. It is quite alone, three stories in height, in every one of which are four rooms, except the ground story, where are his kitchen, store-room, and another room, I imagine for his attendants. The area of each of these rooms is about eight, or at most but nine feet square. In every one is a small stove; his bedstead is of stone, as are his bed and pillow. His chairs are of the same materials; every story of his house is vaulted, and is flat on the roof, for the conveniency of taking a view of the country. It has but one entry, and every room receives light from one window of the least size. The builder was a hermit, and a professed religious. The hospital is not large, but well enough provided with every necessary except medicine, prayers being, in their opinion, sufficiently efficacious for the cure of all diseases which appear in this holy place.

"At the west end of the church is one of the most capacious cupolas I have ever seen, only the middle of the arch had fallen down some years ago. The dome is very magnificent and high, with a gallery that surrounds it near the top: it is well lighted, the windows being large, and the walls are all hung round with various pictures of the saints, very richly adorned with silver, gold, pearls, and precious stones; and the altar is very grand, and adorned with various pieces of curious workmanship. This dome is a noble structure; but I cannot say whether it is as large as that of St. Paul's or not."

Treytza, or Treytzki, is a small, but handsome town, famed for the stately monastery of that name, or convent of the Trinity, a spacious building, with three large gates, and a noble church, standing in the middle of the square. The abbot here is so rich, that he has fifty-six thousand peasants dependent on him, besides other revenues. The czars have here some apartments for themselves, and a noble palace, strongly fortified. In this monastery it was that the late czar Peter I. in his younger days, was forced to retire, to secure himself from the fury of the Boyard Couvancki and his strelitzes, who plundered and murdered all opponents in his metropolis; and from the plots and conspiracies of his ambitious sister.

The town of Columna, or Kolumna, is situated near the confines of the duchy of Rezan on the western shore of the river Occa, which divides it from a slaboda, or suburb, on the opposite side. It is almost of a round figure, half a mile in compass, well fortified with a stone wall, six fathoms high, and two thick, and flanked with stout and high towers, at the distance of two hundred paces from each other; but is now gone to decay, and is almost ruined on one side. The suburb, which is called Colutwina slaboda, is the place where the merchandizes are

are exposed to sale. As for the city, it hath nothing considerable in it except the fine stately church of the Virgin Mary, and the archiepiscopal palace; the city being dignified with the title of an archbishopric. It stands about fifteen leagues south-east from Moscow; latitude fifty-five degrees, longitude thirty-nine degrees twenty-eight minutes east.

Colomensko, or Kolommeniski, is a small city in the neighbourhood of Moscow, situated on an eminence, from which it yields a beautiful prospect. It hath a handsome church, with two high towers, and a stately monastery. It hath two avenues to it over the Mosca, which must be crossed over a float of timber fastened together, so as to be loosened and divided, to give passage to the vessels that go up and down that river.

The town of Mosaisch, situated on the same river, about nine leagues south-west of the city of Moscow, but not considerable enough at present to merit a particular description.

XVII. The duchy of Rostow, or Rostoff, is bounded on the south by that of Moscow; on the north by that of Jaroslaw, on the east by that of Sudal, and on the west by that of Twere. It is a rich and plentiful country, and was formerly the first duchy in all Russia, next to that of Novogorod; and was governed by its own duke, till the czar Iwan Basilowitz put the last of them to death, and seized on this territory, anno 1564. It was afterwards assigned for the maintenance of the zarowitz, or heir apparent. Rostow abounds with corn, fruits, herbs, game, &c. The capital, called also Rostow, is a large town and metropolitical see, situated on the lake of Rostow, from whence issues the small river Cobris, or Colspar, which runs into the Wolga. There are some elegant stone churches in this city: it stands about one hundred and twenty miles to the north of Moscow.

The town of Uglitz, situated on the Wolga, about eighty miles to the westward of Rostow is celebrated for the excellency of the bread made in it. Here the young prince Demetrius, son of the czar Iwan Basilowitz, was murdered by order of his brother-in-law Trederowitz Gadenaw, during a tumult which was occasioned by a conflagration made on purpose, and the throne was usurped by the murderer. The town of Chlopigorod is now gone to decay, though it was formerly a place of considerable trade.

The town of Penstaw is large and populous, standing at an equal distance from Moscow and Rostow. The other towns and villages are known by the names of Mologa, Semabrataff, Guo, Imbilowa-Uova, and Bafnia Nova, but there is nothing remarkable in any of them.

XVIII. The duchy of Yerossawla lies between Moscow and Vologda: it is exceedingly fertile, abounds with corn, cattle, and honey, and is watered by the Wolga, which runs through the heart of it. The capital of the same name, is a strong, well-fortified, large, populous city, containing forty thousand inhabitants. It is about thirty-six miles to the northward of Rostow, and has a considerable trade in corn, cattle, leather, honey, &c. Roma Nova and Darnalofke, which are of little note, are the other towns of this district.

XIX. The dutchy of Bilejesora is a very small province, nearly circular, and derives its name from a lake called Biele-Ozoro, or the White Lake, which is forty miles long and twenty broad, and on the banks of which stands the capital of the same name.

This duchy is bounded, on the south, by that of Twere; on the west, by Great Novogorod; on the north by Vologda; and, on the east, by Yerossawla. The whole is so much encumbered with lakes, fens, bogs, woods, &c. that the roads in general are useless, except in the winter, when the frost renders them passable. Some parts of the province afford corn and pasture; and there is plenty of fish: Biele-Ozoro, or Belozero, the capital, is a large populous, rich place, is strongly fortified, hath an important cattle, and is surrounded by the waters of the before-mentioned lake.

XX. The duchy of Vologda is bounded, on the west, by Bilejesora; on the east, by the river Dwina, on the north, by Cargapol and Oustriaug; and, on the south, by Yerossawla. It abounds with fish and game, but is destitute of most other kinds of provisions; being woody, mountainous, full of lakes, firs, &c.

The capital, which is called by the name of the province, is situated on both sides of the river Vologda; is a capacious, populous, and commercial place, as, besides natives, many English, Dutch, and other merchants reside in it. This city is one of the most ancient Russian archiepiscopal sees; is near two hundred and thirty miles to

the northward of Moscow, surrounded by a stone wall, and defended by a strong fortress. The streets are opened regular, the houses handsome, and the markets well furnished, every commodity being sold in a distinct quarter. The river is broad and navigable, and the cathedral magnificent; besides which, here are twenty stone, and forty-three wooden churches, besides three nunneries, each of which has an elegant chapel.

The town of Dwinitza, situated on a river of the same name, which falls in the Vologda, a small, but well-peopled town. There are likewise two other inconsiderable towns, named Sooska and Strelitz, on the river Vologda.

XXI. The province of Cargapol is situated to the north of Vologda, from hence it stretches almost to the White Sea. It is woody and fenny, contains many lakes and rivers, but has no town except Cargapol, which is situated on the western banks of the river Onega. The people are exceedingly rude and barbarous. The district of Wiga, which lies to the north west of Cargapol, is wild and desolate, and contains only two small towns called Waga Wied; and the district of Onega, which lies to the westward of that of Waga, is equally barren and wild, very thinly inhabited, and hath only one town named Korelskoi, situated on the southern coast of the Red-sea, and near the mouth of the river Onega.

XXII. The province of Dwina is very extensive, being computed near one hundred leagues long, in form of a lozenge or rhomb. It is bounded on the north and north-west by the White Sea, and part of Ingria; on the west by the provinces of Vaga and Onega, last mentioned, from which it is parted by the river Dwina; on the south by that of Oustiaug, or Ustiug; and on the east by part of that of Zirania. It is watered by several rivers, besides the Dwina above mentioned; some of which, particularly the Pinega, fall into it a little above the town of Upsnaga, and run with it into the White Sea at the city of Archangel, or St. Michael the Archangel, called by the Russians, Archania; it is advantageously seated on the east side of the Dwina, which falls into the White Sea six leagues below it. It extends itself along that river only about two miles, or three quarters of a league, in length; and about one quarter in breadth; but yet is rich and populous, and of modern structure; being chiefly become considerable by the English ships coming thither to traffic, and thereby bringing a great resort of merchants thither from most parts of Moscovy, as well as from Holland, Sweden, Denmark, &c. inasmuch that those months in which the river is not frozen, for it will freeze at least three months in winter, one may see between three and four hundred, and sometimes more, sail of ships, in that harbour.

This city was first discovered by the English, anno 1553, when Sir Hugh Willoughby having received a commission to go to find out the north-east passage to China, Richard Chancellor, master of one of the ships, was separated from the rest of the fleet, and accidentally fell into the bay of St. Nicolas, on the White Sea; from whence he was sent for, and kindly received by the then czar Iwan Basilowitz, who soon after granted the English free liberty to trade into his dominions. A company of merchants was accordingly incorporated in London, anno 1555, and had large privileges granted to them by that monarch; upon which encouragement, a considerable traffic was set on foot, to the great profit of both nations, which ours enjoyed solely, for some time. Till then, the Russian commodities used to be conveyed to Narva, a sea-port on the gulf of Finland, but this latter hath yielded, since, to Archangel, which is now, in a manner, the only port, of any consideration, in Moscovy.

After the English, the Dutch and other nations, soon struck in for a share of this traffic, though not with the same advantage with ours, by reason of the peculiar privileges granted to our company; but these were unhappily lost in the time of our grand rebellion, when the czar was so exasperated against the English nation, on his hearing of the murder of King Charles I. that he wholly deprived them of it; since which time, all our efforts have not been able to regain them: so that our merchants now trade thither upon the same footing with other Europeans.

The palace, or hall, is the most considerable edifice in this city: it is built of large square stones, after the Italian manner, and divided into three parts: in one of which the merchants, both Russians and strangers, have large and convenient apartments, for themselves and their wares; but after the ships are sailed away, which they commonly do in October, they then are obliged to remove to other lodgings. This palace is a large stately building, with a

spacious court before it, which reaches quite to the river. The courts of justice, both civil and criminal, are held in it in their proper apartments.

The citadel, where the governor resides, is built after the Russian manner, and surrounded with wooden walls, which reach, also, quite to the river. In it are a vast quantity and variety of shops, where the Russians store up their merchandize against the fair: these, as well as the houses of the town, are all of wood, but stout and large, and well furnished within, especially those of foreign merchants. They have all of them a stove within-side every chamber, to fence against the extreme cold. The streets are paved with broken stumps, pieces of timber, and other rubbish, so roughly laid, that one is in continual danger of falling; only in winter the snow, which lies pretty thick and hard upon them, makes them smooth and easy, during that season, which is here so severe, that there is no divine service performed all that while. However, here is plenty of all provisions, as flesh, fowl of all sorts, especially wild; fish in great variety, and all sold extraordinarily cheap: particularly partridges, which commonly sell at about three-pence or four-pence per brace, and of which here are two kinds; one like the common sort, and the other which turn white in winter, and resume their natural colour in summer.

The government of this city was wholly lodged in the governor till the year 1700, when the czar created four burgomasters to take care of the civil and mercantile affairs; so that the governor's power is now confined to the militia only. The court sends hither yearly, a commissioner, to receive the customs laid on all merchandizes; and he, in his absence, appoints four sublegates, to collect and get them ready against the next year. The revenue which the czar receives from these customs, has been computed to be between one hundred and fifty thousand and two hundred thousand rubles per annum, and the number of ships that come hither from the foreign nations, is, communibus annis, between three and four thousand. The chief commodities that are brought into this port are, gold and silver stuffs, silks, gold and silver lace, other sorts of lace, gold wire, cochineal, indigo, and other drugs for dying; wines, brandies, and other distilled liquors. However, the trade of this place is vastly decreased since the czars, by the conquest of Livonia, have made the ports of Petersburg and Riga the rivals of this, and caused the flow of trade to pass in a great measure, from it to them.

Archangel is the see and residence of a Russian archbishop. Its latitude is variously fixed by geographers: Father Riccioli places it under sixty-six degrees forty minutes, and the Dutch maps, after De Lisle, remove it farther north by almost three degrees. We hope ours will be found more exact, which give it sixty-four degrees thirty-six minutes, and longitude forty degrees five minutes east.

St. Nicolas is another sea-port in this province, and stands on the south coast of the White Sea, about seven leagues west of Archangel. It seems to have been formerly more considerable than it is; seeing it gave name to this whole bay, or sea, which was, from it, styled St. Nicholas's bay.

Colmogorod is situated on the west shore of the Dwina, about nine or ten leagues above, or south of Archangel, and is reckoned one of the most considerable towns, next to it, in this province. It stands a little above the confluence of the river Pinega into the Dwina. M. Le Brun, who calls it Colmogora, says it is large, and the seat of a Russian archbishop.

Here is a strong fortress, called Nova Dwiniska; it was lately built to defend the mouth of the new canal, or most northern mouth of the Dwina, on the White Sea. It hath a large wooden bridge over that river, with a draw-bridge in the middle, wide enough for two ships to pass abreast of each other.

The city of Sottolitz is very populous and considerable, and inhabited by many wealthy merchants, and ingenious mechanics: it stands upon the south limits of this province, in latitude sixty-three degrees. A territory named Wollofsgy, is near this place: it is inhabited by men of a different language, who are civilized, and belong to the Greek church: they are supposed to have come hither from Livonia.

There are a few islands near this part of the Russian shore, but they are of very little importance: namely, Martinowitz, which is about one hundred and thirty miles long, and upwards of fifty broad. It stands near two degrees to the northward of the arctic pole, is full of woods, and watered by several rivers: this island is generally called Candenora, or Kandenofs. Farther north there is another called Kelgon, from the extreme severity of the climate.

These are but thinly inhabited, and but little known. The White Sea contains, besides these, a few other scattered islands, which are for the most part uninhabited and barren.

SECT. IV.

Describing the third grand Division of RUSSIA, called EASTERN MUSCOVY, or RUSSIA. EASTERN MUSCOVY consists of ten Provinces which follow: namely, 1. MAZZEN; 2. JUGORA; 3. CONDORA; 4. TEESCA; 5. PETZORA; 6. VOGULIZI; 7. PERMIA; 8. OUSTIOUG; 9. ZIRANIA; 10. VAITKA, or VIATKA.

I. **T**HE territory of Mezzen is situated to the northward of Dwina and the river Prega, and extends northward to Jugora and the straits of Kandenofs. It is a long tract of land, narrow, woody, fenny, mountainous, cold, and barren. The whole region is gloomy and uncomfortable; and the chief town, called Mezzen, and the few villages which this province contains, are wretched places.

II. The province of Jugora, or Jugorski, is bounded, on the south-west, by Mezzen; on the north, by the northern ocean; on the east, by the province of Petzora; and, on the south, by those of Oustioug and Permia. It is a very large territory, divided by the polar circle into two parts, the far greater of which lies on this side; however, its situation is cold enough to make the land barren and uncultivated; so that the country is almost over-run with forests, and covered with lakes and bogs: it hath also abundance of rivers, the principal of which are, the Fitza, Goloebintza, Goloebeica, Otma, Oymitza, Peitza, Peizitza, Voloingha, and Sudega; all which flow northwards into the gulf of Teesca, called by the Russians, Teeskaia Gouba. There are several others on the south end of the province, which take different courses from these, and empty themselves some into the Dwina, and others into lakes. The territory of Vaconitza Volost is in the middle of this province: it hath a few towns or great villages; and on the south parts are the Jugorian mountains, which divide that part from the province of Zirania, and are always covered with ice and snow.

The town of Jugora, or Juhora, stands on a small bay of that name, on the northern coast, in the latitude of sixty-eight degrees, between the island of Candenois on the west, and the gulf of Petzerkaia on the north-east; and the island of Colgoya lies over against it, about twenty leagues from the land.

III. The province of Condora, or Condielski, lies between the Dwina, on the west, Jugora on the north, Petzora on the east, and Permia on the south. It is a large province with the title of duchy, but so boggy, woody, and mountainous, that it scarce deserves notice, otherwise than Wireatoura, the capital, seated on the northern parts in the latitude of sixty-six degrees. Antient maps place this province between the White Sea and Siberia, which is the land of the Samoieds.

IV. The territory of Teesca, north of Condora and Jugorski, on the northern sea; having the straits of Candenois, and its island, on the west, and Samoieda, on the east. It hath but one town worth naming, viz. Gorodische, which stands on a small river that falls in about ten leagues below it, into the gulf of Teesca; sixty-seven degrees latitude, and fifty degrees twenty minutes east longitude.

V. The province of Petzora is a vast territory, extending itself from the lake Petzerkie, on the southernmost part of it, quite to the northern or Frozen ocean; that is, from the sixty-third to almost the seventieth degree of north latitude. It is bounded, on the west, by Jugora; on the east, by the Riphæan or Obian mountains; on the south, by the province of Vogulizi; and by the northern sea, on the north. The river Petzora, which rises out of that lake, runs quite through it, in a direct course, from south to north, and discharges itself into the above-mentioned sea, by six different mouths, near the strait of Weigatz, a little above the city of Petzora, which is situated upon the same river, about thirty leagues from the sea; it is but a small place, and is supposed to have been formerly called Puste Oloro, from some golden mines, or sands, that fell from those Obian mountains into that river. The cold is so extensive and lasting here, that the rivers are frozen about eight months in the year. They begin to thaw in May, and in August freeze again.

Besides the capital, there are three towns in this province: namely, Weliki Poyassa, near the spring head of the

the above-named river; Papynowgorod, about thirty-four leagues below it; Botwanskaia, on the gulf of its name, near the mouth of the Petzora; Puterferikoy, on the east of the same; with some others.

VI. The territory of the Vogulizi, called also Vogulitz, Vogolskoi, and Volgolitzes, is seated south of the last named province, and north of that of Permia. Their country is also divided by the Obian mountains from the country of Siberia, on the east, and extends itself westward to the river Irtis. These people differ so much from all their neighbours round about, that they have been supposed to be of Tartaric extraction, but without any probability; since all the Tartars, either of Siberia, Cazan, or Astracan, are all Mahometans; whereas these Vogulizi are heathens, and resemble most, in their religion and customs, the Siberian pagans, but are more civilized than they are. The country reaches from sixty-two degrees thirty minutes to almost sixty-three degrees of north latitude.

With respect to their religion, they acknowledge a supreme Being, the creator and preserver of all things; and sacrifice to him once a year, at the end of summer, in one of the nearest forests, some of the best cattle they are masters of, one of each sort; but can give no reason for so doing, but that their fathers did so. They believe in a future life of rewards and punishments, but will not bear being told that there are any devils, or malevolent spirits; alledging, that they have no instances among them of any such. Their dress resembles that of the Russian peasants, and they bury their dead in their best cloaths, together with some money. As little corn comes to perfection in their country, they live chiefly upon the milk of their cattle, and such game as they kill. They never marry within the forbidden degrees of consanguinity; but in other respects may have as many wives as they can maintain, which they purchase of their parents.

Here are neither cities nor towns, but villages made up of huts of a conic figure, with a hearth in the middle, and a hole at the top, to let the smoke out; which hole, however, they cover with a thin transparent piece of ice, to let some light into their huts, as soon as their fuel is burnt to a coal. When a woman is near the time of her delivery, she is obliged to go into a private hut raised on purpose for her, and to live in it separate from her husband, and all matrimonial intercourse. The men go a shooting of elks, fallow deer, and other game: they live quietly under the Russian government, and pay their tribute in skins and furs, which are sent into the public repository at Siberia.

VII. The province of Permia, or Permesky, is one of the largest in the Russian empire, and is bounded, on the north, by the country of the Vogulizi; on the east, by Siberia; on the south, by the province of Vaitka; and on the west by that of Oustoug, or Ustug, and reaches almost from fifty-two to sixty-one degrees of north latitude, and in breadth above sixty leagues where broadest, though much narrower in the southern part towards Cazan, or Casan. Notwithstanding this vast extent, it is far from being considerable upon any account, if we except its rivers, some of which are large, and run a vast length; the most remarkable one is the Kama, which receives several others, and springs from that long chain of mountains which part it from Siberia, and which extend themselves from the kingdom of Cazan quite to the Frozen Sea; that is, from fifty-five to almost seventy degrees of latitude. Besides this ridge, the country abounds with many more, as well as lakes, so that its soil is so far from fertile, that the inhabitants are obliged to eat peas, beans, and other pulse, instead of bread. They differ likewise much from the neighbouring nations in other respects, as in their customs, religion, &c. and have a language peculiar to themselves. They are subject to the Russians, and pay their tribute in horses, and several kinds of furs. The chief town is Perma Velikaia, which authors represent as a place of little note, though its name implies something considerable.

VIII. The country of Oustoug, or Ustug, hath its name from the capital, and is bounded, on the east, by Permia, and by the forests of Ziranian; on the north, by the rivers Waga and Dwina; on the west, by the province of Cargapol; and on the south, by that of Vologda. It is not only small, but barren, a great part being covered with vast and impenetrable woods. These harbour such a prodigious number of black foxes, that their furs are one of the chief commodities of this country. The rivers Jugh and Suchana rise in this province, the former on the east side; and the Suchana on the west; and both streams

meeting near the middle, form the great Dwina, or as its name imports, the double river. Other rivers, which fall into the Suchana on the east side, are the Peetzenga Recca, which divide Oustoug from Vologda, the Brons-naia, and Stritiuska. There fall into it, on the west side, those of Relfona, Oustoug, Souzenga, Verchna, Jorga, and a smaller one, at the mouth of which stands the monastery of Teelego. The Waga, which likewise falls into the Dwina, runs through some of the frontiers of this province; that of Oustoug, which hath its spring-head also in this province, and runs its course about four or five leagues from that of the Waga, and falls into the Suchana. This province abounds with the finest black foxes, whose skins bear a great value.

The chief town is Oustoug, Ustug, or Ust Jugh: it is situated on the western shore of the Suchana, which receives the Jugh a little below it. It is an archiepiscopal see of the Russian church, and hath ten or twelve neat churches built of white stone, the cupolas and spires of which are covered over with tin. The other churches, as as well as the houses, are built of wood. The archbishop's palace, which is a large building, and the best edifice of this city, is on the west side of the river. The other part of it, over the water, is less considerable, but extends itself along the side of it, in form of a crescent, a league in length, and a quarter in breadth. It is chiefly noted for a yearly fair for the sale of fox-skins, and other furs. In Olearius's time it was, it seems, the only city in all the empire that was surrounded with stone walls: the reason of which was, that the czars used to send part of their most valuable treasure thither in time of war. It is two hundred and twenty miles south-east from Archangel, in latitude sixty-one degrees thirty-five minutes, longitude forty-five degrees fifty-five minutes east.

IX. The province of Ziranian, or country of the Zarani, is a long desert, woody tract of land, running from south to north, from the sixtieth to the sixty-fifth degree of north latitude, but much narrower from east to west. It deserves rather the name of a forest than of a province, and so indeed it is called by several authors, there being but few spots inhabited, in comparison of the vast and impenetrable woods that spread themselves over it, and abound with innumerable herds of wild beasts. The people who are here scattered in villages, or groups of sorry huts, are fierce, brutish, and untractable; they live upon the game they kill, pay their tribute to the sovereign in furs, and also make cloathing with it for themselves, and covering for their houses, and the rest they sell and exchange for other goods.

X. The province of Vaitka, or Viatka has the title of a duchy, and is the last province in this division of Russia. It is bounded, on the north, by Permia, Ziranian, and Oustoug; on the west, by Vologda and Peroslaw; on the south, by the kingdom of Cazan; and on the east, by that part of Siberia called the territory of Stoutka. It is mostly woody, marshy, and barren; yet yields great quantity of honey, wax, and furs. It was conquered from the Tartars by the czar Iwan Basilowitz, but was at that time so subject to the incursions of the Scheremisse Tartars, that he found it half abandoned, and nearly desert. But since both nations have been subdued by the Russians, it hath fared much better. It is watered by the river of its name, which springs a little above the town of Sextanoff, or Sestakoff, and running through that and several other towns falls into the Kama; this last falls into the Wolga, a little above Cazan, and runs through another part of the country.

The principal towns in this province are, Viatka the capital, Coteliniz, Orlova, or Orloof, Glinow, Overtoi, Catharina, Verschotsenskoi, Roigorod, Koigorodoc, Ursun, Sestanoz, or Sestakoff, and Slaboda.

The town of Viatka is situated on the river of its name, or, according to Olearius, on a small river that falls into it, a little below that city. It hath little or nothing worth notice, except its bishop's see, and a good stout castle, built by the czar above-mentioned; to suppress the incursions of the Scheremisse Tartars. There are two high roads that lead from hence to Moscow; the one through Castroma and Galica; the other through Ustoug; the former is much shorter, but the most troublesome and dangerous, on account of the Scheremisse freebooters that infest those parts, and also the vast marshes that must be crossed by the traveller.

The town of Colisnitz, which is pretty considerable, is situated near the confines of the kingdom of Cazan, or Casan: and Sladboda, another town, stands more to the north-west, on the borders of the Scheremisse Tartars.

This

This dutchy includes, besides the above, Clinow, Kaigorod, and Ortow, all fortified in the Russian style.

S E C T. V.

Containing the fourth grand Division of RUSSIA, termed MUSCOVITE TARTARY.

THIS division of the Russian empire comprises the Crim, Lefgee, Baskeer, Ralmuck, Usbeak, and some less considerable tribes of Tartars; part of Circania, Siberia, Kamfchatka, Samoieda, and the kingdoms of Astracan, Cazan, and Bulgaria; but as the principal part of these belong to Asia, we shall therefore refer our readers to that part of this work for an account of them, and confine ourselves to a description of the kingdoms of Cazan and Bulgaria, which are in the European quarter.

The kingdom of Cazan, which the Russians call Czarstwo Cazaniskoy, that is the Czariate, or Czarine kingdom of Cazan, was formerly subject to its own princes, who were esteemed powerful monarchs; but was at length subdued by the czar Basilowitz, after a long and bloody war: his son Iwan Basilowitz, surnamed the Great, finished the conquest, anno 1554, and added to it the kingdom of Astracan; ever since which these two kingdoms have been looked upon as the two richest jewels in the Czarish diadem: this of Cazan, on account of its extraordinary richness and fertility; and that of Astracan, on account of its vast and valuable traffic.

Cazan is bounded on the north by the provinces of Vaitka last described, and Permia; on the east by the Tuman Tartary; on the south by Baskiria Bulgaria, and Astracan; on the west, by the Lower Novogorod, and Moscovy, properly so called; but, according to Mr. Isbrand's map, not so far to the east as the common ones do generally place it. It is watered by the two rivers Wolga and Kama, which run through it, and enrich both its soil and its traffic.

The chief towns in this kingdom are, Cazan the capital, Laifoff, Sabackzar, Pagantzina, Swiatfk, Koleio, Kockscaga, Malmish, Tetul, Karakul, Sundir, Batula, Simburiki, Bur, Uza, and some others of less note.

The town of Cazan, Cazan, or Cazanum, is seated on a river of the same name, near its confluence with the Wolga, is a large and populous city, and the seat of a Russian metropolitan. The vast number of churches, monasteries, and steeples which adorn it, make it yield a fine prospect both from the land, and from the vessels that sail up and down the Wolga. The description which Olearius, who had been there, gives us of it, is to this purport: that it is situated on a fine spacious plain on the river Casanka, about seven werstes from the place where it falls into the Wolga, in latitude fifty-eight degrees thirty-eight minutes. Most of its houses are of wood, as well as its ramparts, and towers. The castle alone is surrounded with stone walls; and this is well stored with artillery, and warlike ammunition; and the river which runs round it, serves it instead of a ditch, which renders the place very strong. A garrison is kept in it, all of Russian soldiers; and the Tartars which inhabit the town are forbid to enter it, under pain of death. The castle is governed by its own Waywode, and the city by its own governor. About seven werstes below the town, in a reach where the river is broad, there is a large dock for building ships of a considerable bulk, which are afterwards sent down into the Caspian sea. The city is excellently well situated for being well supplied with all manner of necessaries and provisions by land and water, and which are here in great plenty and cheapness.

The town of Kockscaga, about seventy miles from Cazan, on the banks of the Wolga, is very small. There is also an inconsiderable town on the side of the river Casanka, near the frontiers of Bulgaria, surrounded by a wooden wall, and but thinly peopled.

At the distance of about three miles from the Wolga are the rivers of Scrulierki; which was once an opulent city between Cazan and Astracan, till Tamerlane the Great destroyed it.

The kingdom of Bulgaria, otherwise styled the Horda, or region of the Zavolani, was antiently inhabited by the Bulgares, or Volgares, a strange race of men, who broke into these parts from Asia, and so dissolute in their morals, that their very name became a term of reproach among their neighbours; and from them the whole kingdom had that of Bulgaria given to it: it is divided into Great and Little, or Asiatic and European. The latter, which lies

along the south coasts of the Danube, having the Black Sea on the east, and Macedonia on the west, became formerly part of the kingdom of Hungary, till subdued by Sultan Amurat II. since which it hath been, and is still, part of Turkey in Europe, and therefore is foreign to this article of Russia, and will be spoken of in its proper place.

Bulgaria the Great is that of which we are now going to speak, as part of Russia in Europe, conquered from the Tartars by some of the former czars of Muscovy. It hath its name, as well as Bulgar its capital, from the Bulgares before-mentioned, and is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Cazan, last described; on the east, by Baskiria; on the south, by the Samara, which divides it from the kingdom of Astracan, and, on the west, by the Wolga. The large lake Kerghewl lies on the southern side; and this is the most we can meet worth mention concerning the Russian Bulgaria, whose capital stands on the north part of it, about twenty-four miles from Caan.

The city of Samara is situated on the left shore of the river of its name, eastward of the Wolga, into which it falls a little below it. It stands on the declivity of a mountain of a moderate height, and which terminates at the shore on which the city stands. It is large, but wretchedly built, of wood, as well as the walls and towers that surround it. The town covers almost the whole mountain, and the suburb extends itself along the banks of the river, about forty leagues south of Bulgar, and in latitude fifty-two degrees forty minutes, and longitude fifty degrees thirty minutes east.

S E C T. VI.

Comprehending the fifth Division of the Empire of RUSSIA, called RUSSIAN LAPLAND, and NOVA ZEMBLA.

RUSSIAN Lapland is bounded, on the north, by the northern ocean; on the east and south, by the White Sea; which forms there a spacious gulf; and by the river Zoloticza, which discharges itself into it on the east side of Kierni, and on the west it hath the Danish Lapland. It is further divided into three parts, according to their situation; whereof one is called Leporia Mouremanskoi; or maritime Leporia. Terrskoi, or Inland Leporia; and Bellamoureeskoi Leporia. The first is situated on the north and east side, having the Norwegian or Danish Lapland on the north-west; the Swedish, on the west; Terrskoi on the south-west; and Bellamoureeskoi on the south-east.

The circumjacent country is mountainous, woody, and barren; the air extremely cold; the inhabitants are as rude as ignorant; and, in general, the country is much like the Swedish and Danish Lapland.

Most of the islands, cities, and towns, stand on the sea-coasts, and are as follow: Kierni, situated near the mouth of the river Zoloticza. Zoloski a town and island, in which is a monastery of the same name. Kerfelli, or Kierlit, on the mouth of the fresh-water river. Kemelco, a town and island, with some small ones about it. Kovoda, situated on the mouth of a river which flows from the lake Pajorfwoi into the gulf Ombai, on the mouth of a river of the same name, which empties itself into the Gouba, or Salt River, Wolna Ostrof, or Island of Deer, with a town of the same name. Cape Touria, Soukete, Cascavaron, Warfiga, Palenga, and Pelitza; which are but small towns. Sonfnowitz, or Island of the Cross; three others on the mouth of the river Ponoï; Cape Orlogone, with a bay and haven, at the entrance into the White Sea. The isles of Lombacho; the cape and isles of Swetenoes, in a bay; at the further end of which is the town of Jockna, situated on a river of the same name, which affords plenty of fish. Nookostrof, called by the Dutch Nagel Eyland, or Nail Island; the Mariners Bay. Seven islands more on the mouth of a nameless river, well-stored with salmon, as are indeed most of the rivers on this coast. The Golden Bay, Daelna Olgia, or Farther Olgia, to distinguish it from another of the same name, and nearer the coast, namely, Daelna Silensi, or Farther Silensi, so named, on the same account; port Gabriel; port of Waronia; Bliesna, or Nearer Olgia; the island and town of Kildwin; the town, island, and lake of Kola; the Fishermen's island; Petzinska river; with a monastery so named.

The lake of Polina, or Polina Ozero, with a town of the same name, are in the interior part of the country.

Moufemanskoi Leporia, is a mountainous and woody country, and hath few towns of note except Kola, a small

small port, situated on the mouth of a river of the same name, which falls into the ocean. It lies in latitude sixty-eight degrees fifty-five minutes, longitude thirty-four degrees twenty-five minutes east; is the chief place in the whole country, and stands between the town of Wardways and the White Sea.

The inland part of the Russian Lapland, called Terrskoi Leporia, is almost surrounded with the sea, and is the land that makes the gulf of the White Sea. It is no less woody and barren than the rest, and the chief town in it is Warfiga, situated on the south coast, over against Archangel; latitude sixty-four degrees twenty-five minutes, longitude forty degrees east. Loehena is another small sea-port, in latitude sixty-eight degrees, at the mouth of a river of its name, which falls into the northern ocean.

The other district, called Bellamoureskoi Leporia, lies at the bottom of the above-mentioned gulf called the White Sea, and, like the rest, is cold, barren, and thinly inhabited. The chief town is Soma, situated on the frontiers of the province of Moscovitish Carelia, and at the very entrance into the Russian Lapland, on the White Sea; latitude sixty-four degrees twenty minutes.

We shall close our account of the different provinces of the Russian empire with a description of Nova Zembla, which name, in the Russian language, signifies New Land: it is separated from the northern part of Russia by the strait called Veigatz, or Wygatz, which lies in north latitude seventy degrees. The land that forms this strait is a promontory, advancing southward from the main country, which is supposed to extend itself much farther north. It was long doubted whether this country joined to the continent of Greenland on the west, or of Tartary on the east; but it is now known to be an island of great extent.

The English were the first discoverers of this country in the year 1553, when Captain Hugh Willoughby sailed thither with three vessels, and advanced from the north cape of Finmark as far north as the seventy-second degree of latitude, where he thought he had descried this land; but being obliged, through stress of weather, to put into a port of Lapland, he there perished with cold, with all his company. Three years afterwards, Captain Burroughs sailed in search of it; and having doubled the above-mentioned cape, discovered the strait of Wygatz, between the south part of Nova Zembla, and the north coast of Samoieda. Since that time it hath been often visited, both by Dutch and English, in hopes of finding out the north-east passage; but the coldness of the climate, and the mountains of snow that covered the whole country, prevented their making any great discoveries. Some Dutchmen wintered there, anno 1598, but found the cold so excessive, that they with great difficulty kept themselves alive till the next summer. They saw no sun from January 4th to June 24th, during which long and dark interval they had no light, except what the moon afforded them from the first to the last quarter, in which she shone by day and night without intermission. From their accounts of this country, it appears, that some part of it is inhabited by a people of low stature, who are idolaters, and barbarous. The attempts made afterwards by Captain Barentz, a Hollander, by Hudson, Wood, and Haws, proved likewise of little or no consequence to the public, and of a bad one to them, except that Wood made some remarks, which gave him reason to think there was a passage between this country and that of Greenland. He represents Nova Zembla as the most forlorn spot in all the world, the greatest part of which is laid under snow and ice; and, where there are neither of these, one meets with nothing but dismal quagmires, covered with moss, and some blue and yellow flowers. Upon digging two or three feet into the earth, they find the ice as hard as marble, which shews how vain it would be to attempt to winter there in caves dug under ground. In other northern countries the ice and snow is observed to melt much sooner on the sea-coasts than in the inland parts; but here it is quite the reverse; and the sea, which beats against mountains of it of a prodigious height, hath so undermined it, that it seems to hang in the air, and discovers such monstrous chasms as strike the beholder with horror.

As far as a view could be taken of this country, it is said to breed some sorts of wild creatures, such as large and white bears, foxes, some little creatures like rabbits, but not bigger than rats, large penguins, &c. The last mentioned bird is of the size of a goose, and the feathers are somewhat like hairs, and are of an ash colour. The wings are very short, in proportion to the body, and the bill is black, but the legs are of a bright green. They keep in the water all the day, where they feed upon fish.

As they cannot fly, they are unable to shun their enemies, except by leaping along, which they do pretty well, by the help of their short wings. However, this bird is active upon the water, and seems to be very skilful in catching its food. When the sun begins to set, they retire to the rocks near the sea, where they continue till morning, at which time they are easily taken. Their eggs are very good; but the flesh has a fishy taste, and is never eaten but in cases of great necessity. They build their nests on the craggy points of the rocks, to which these birds can very easily climb.

The penguin is not only common in these northern parts of Russia, but likewise in several countries of North America, and is every where known by the same name, with little or no variation, which in the Celtic, and in our present Welsh, signifies a white head, as that bird actually hath. This, together with some great affinity which is found in many of the radical words, and proper names used by people in those distant regions, confirms a curious conjecture we have borrowed from the authors of the Universal History, and before taken notice of, namely, that the descendants of Gomer, the eldest son of Japhet, were not only the first peoplers of Europe even in its remotest parts, but have preserved their antient language more than any other nation we know of, except the Chinese. The southern part hath been since found to be inhabited by a squat, swarthy sort of people, who cloath themselves with seal-skins, or with the skins of a large bird, which they call penguin, with the feathers. They worship the sun and moon, and have little wooden idols in human shape, but wretchedly carved, or rather notched. They live upon what game or fish they catch.

With respect to the late acquisition of Carelia, or the government of Wiburgh, it must be observed that it composes part of the great duchy of Finland, which the Swedes ceded to Russia, and contains the three districts of Finlandish Carelia, Kexholm, and Sawolex.

This province hath frequently proved a bone of contention between Russia and Sweden. In 1293 it fell under the Swedish dominion, but in 1338 part of it was yielded up to Russia. By the peace of Nystadt, concluded in 1721, a still greater part was resigned to the Russians, the western part alone being left in the possession of the Swedes. Afterwards Sweden was obliged to give up, by the treaty of Abo, the fort of Frederichsham and Wilmanstrand, with part of the parish of Pythis, situated on the other side of the eastern branch of the river Kymmene. In this part of Carelia are the following places:

The town of Susterbec, which is seated in the gulf of Finland, is remarkable for the excellence of its muskets, swords, and iron utensils. The greatest part of the arms used by the Russian troops are made in this place.

The town of Wiburgh, once the capital of Carelia, a bishop's see, and the bulwark of Sweden against Russia, is situated on the gulf of Finland, has a convenient harbour, and carries on a considerable trade. Peter the Great having taken this town by capitulation, in the year 1710, improved its fortifications, which have ever since been kept in good condition, that Wiburgh may now be considered as the bulwark of Russia against Sweden.

The town of Wilmanstrand is seated on the lake Saima, and is called by the Finlanders Lappi Wessli, or Lapp Water. It had formerly the name of Lapstrand, and was only a market-place, but was afterwards made a town; yet it has no magistrate of its own, it being dependent on Frederichsham. It was a considerable mart for tar, and the residence of a Swedish governor. On the twenty-third of August, 1741, an obstinate battle was fought about an English mile from this town between three thousand Swedes and sixteen thousand Russians; but the former were at last obliged to yield to superiority of numbers. The Russians, after they had gained the victory, burnt Wilmanstrand, which was before fortified with a wall and moat; but they have since caused it to be rebuilt.

The town of Frederichsham is situated on the gulf of Finland. The town was governed by two burgomasters, and was defended by a castle built in 1722: it hath also a good harbour and a considerable trade in tar; but in the last war between the Russians and Swedes it was burnt to the ground, and ceded to the latter; afterwards it was rebuilt, and the limits between Sweden and Russian Carelia were fixed near this place.

Kexholm is a very extensive district; but is chiefly covered with rocks and lakes. It has been frequently contended for by the Russians and Swedes, and was restored to the former by the treaty of Nystadt. The most remarkable place in it is, the town of Kexholm, which

is a place of great strength : it is situated on two small islands at the influx of the river Woxen into the lake of Ladoga. The principal part of the town is built on one of these islands ; but the houses are all of wood ; and the castle stands on the other island.

S E C T. VII.

Giving an Account of the Persons, Dress, and Manners of the RUSSIANS ; the Houses and Furniture of the common People ; their Food, Fondness for strong Liquors, their Roads, Manner of Travelling, Language, &c.

AMONGST such a variety of people as are contained in this extensive empire, the stature, features, complexion, genius and habits of the natives differ from one another, as they are differently situated.

The Laplanders and Samoieds, in the north, are low of stature, have flat faces, small eyes, and tawny complexions ; for it is observed, that extreme cold is as great an enemy to beauty as excessive heat ; here they cloath themselves with skins and furs from head to foot, and usually sew two skins together, that they may have the fur next their skins, as well as on the outside.

The natives about Moscow, Petersburg, and in the middle provinces, are of a moderate stature, have good complexions, and hale, vigorous constitutions ; but nothing is so much admired as a ruddy countenance : they are ashamed of looking pale, and if they want red, do not fail to lay it on pretty thick. They are, it is said, inclined to be corpulent, but those I have seen, and we may see them every week at the Greek chapel in York-Buildings, are of a moderate size, both men and women. The vest, gown and cap, were the usual cloathing of the men, till Peter the Great obliged them to wear short cloaths, like their southern neighbours ; and the people of fashion now generally conform to the French mode ; though I observed, that several had coats down to their heels, like a seaman's watch-coat ; and it seems a little barbarous to compel the poor people to leave off these sort of cloaths in so cold a climate as Russia. The men and women both wear their hair long, and the virgins had their hair braided, as some of them have still ; the married women put theirs under a cap, but the gentry in general conform to our dress. The greatest difficulty czar Peter met with, was, to make the men part with their long beards, which they seemed to look upon as sacred, and took it as a favour (when they found they must part with them) if he would return them again after they were cut off, that they might be buried with them.

The women in general, says Mr. Hanway, are not so amiable in Russia as in many other countries : indeed, they daub themselves so much with artificial charms, as to conceal those graces, which, it may be presumed, nature has bestowed on them. In general they profess, that if nature gives them sufficient plumpness, they can procure beauty themselves ; and to this purpose we may observe, from the very idiom of their language, that *crasna devitza*, which literally signifies a red virgin, is a term for a pretty girl. Although it has been observed, that very cold climates produce the same disposition to amour as very hot ones ; yet this does not appear to be entirely the case in Russia. Chastity, as a virtue, is not, indeed, more in repute in this country than in the southern parts of Europe ; but it seems as if the same causes in nature, which restrain them from a fierce resentment of the illegal commerce of the sexes, check, in some measure, their eager desire of such gratifications. As the Russians are not so refined in their manners as to have a very delicate sense of honour, so we find that the chastisement of female infidelity is seldom carried beyond a beating, which the adulterer generally may compound for his offence by a pecuniary mulct. Among the common people, the ecclesiastical laws oblige a man to marry a woman whom he has debauched.

The Russians, the same writer observes, are of a middle stature, though many of them are tall : the common people still are fond of their ancient customs ; and though a majority of them submit to modern improvements, others choose to suffer great inconveniencies, and pay additional taxes, rather than forsake their beards, and some idle distinctions with regard to religion.

The common people, both men and women, are cloathed in long coats made of sheepskins with the wool inwards, which are very proper for that climate, and cost only two rubles (nine shillings) and swaddle up their legs and feet in coarse cloth : their caps are lined with fur, and

cover their ears and neck as well as the head : they wear a sash about the loins, and have double gloves, one pair of woollen and another of leather, which have no partitions for their fingers, only a place for the thumb. People of condition follow our modes, only they have a full great coat over all, lined with furs, and a deep quilted or furred cap when they go abroad. The ladies wear flowered silk cloaks lined with furs, usually made of the skins of white hares.

Persons of both sexes hang on their breast a cross, which is put on when they are baptized, and this they never lay aside as long as they live. The crosses of the peasants are of lead, but those worn by persons of wealth are of gold or silver.

The Russians seldom fail of bathing twice a week ; for which purpose almost every housekeeper is provided with a bath ; and he that has none of his own, goes to those that are public ; and baron Mayerburgh affirms, that they pay so little regard to decency, that men and women make no scruple to go into them promiscuously, and there appear naked to each other. It is also observed that they will often sally out naked from the warm bath, run about in the cold, roll themselves in the snow, and plunge again into the warm water : and this vicissitude of heat and cold they consider as beneficial to the constitution, by rendering them healthy and hardy.

In visits of ceremony, the men and women usually welcome each other with a kiss ; but those of the lower class shew their profound respect for persons of high rank, by prostrating themselves on the ground before them. Even the common people salute each other with great civility ; but before a Russian welcomes his guest, the visitor is obliged to make the sign of the cross, and at the same time to bow to a picture of some saint, which is so placed as to be seen immediately at coming in.

With respect to their method of building, their most usual way, both in the towns and country villages, is, to lay one beam of wood upon another ; and, fastening them at the four corners, fill up the crevices between the beams with moss. The house is afterwards covered with shingles, and holes are made in the timber for doors and windows. A brick stove or large oven is commonly made in the houses of the peasants, and takes up a fourth part of the area : this is flat at the top, and boarded, and upon it, and on a kind of shelves round the room, the whole family sleep without beds. The houses in the villages are contiguous and built close together, as those in towns commonly are. Three benches, an oblong table, and the picture of a saint or two, compose the principal part of their furniture. Instead of candles or lamps, the peasants usually burn long splinters of deal. The apartments are as black as so many chimnies ; for the fire-hearth being within the stove above-mentioned (which has no other vent for the smoke but into the room), the walls are covered with soot. It is no sooner dark, than the houses swarm with a species of insects called *tarralans*, which are a kind of goat-chaffers. The best method of keeping them out is burning a light in the room till break of day.

As to their diet, the common people of Russia, and indeed the whole nation, are much more used to fish than flesh, especially salt fish ; their fasts taking up near two thirds of the year, when they are absolutely prohibited by their religion to taste of flesh : and in this they seem to place the greatest part of religion, even their children observing it with the utmost strictness ; and as they eat no flesh at these times, neither will they taste of milk or eggs, or any thing that has any relation to it. They eat melons, cucumbers, turnips, and other garden stuff in great abundance, and chuse rye bread rather than wheat, though they have enough of both. They will march a fortnight or three weeks very contentedly when they are in the army, if you supply them but with *saccary*, which is rye bread broken into small pieces and baked a second time, especially if they are allowed a dram now and then. *Caviere* made of the roes of sturgeon salted and dried, is a great dish amongst them ; and people of condition have out of Lent a variety of flesh and fowl at their tables. But before the company sits down, the master or mistress of the house, of what quality soever, always presents every one of the guests with a cup of brandy on a plate with her own hands ; and among particular friends all the company salute the lady. The first course at an entertainment usually consists of hams, tongues, and other cold savoury dishes, that the liquor may relish the better, I presume ; with these stand several made dishes, dressed with oil, olives, onions, and garlick ; which having remained upon the table about an hour, the second course, consisting of soups and boiled

and roast meat, is brought in; after which follows the desert, and liquor in abundance; though this goes round pretty freely all the time, the healths being began at the beginning of the meal, in large cups made in the fashion of a bell.

Their liquors are either mead, or quaz, a sort of small mead made with honeycombs; but they are of late years pretty much come into the drinking of beer: the profit of which the government engrosses, all the brewhouses and places where beer is retailed being the czarina's, and private houses forced to have licences of the government to brew. It is generally very strong, or the Russians would not value it; and as it is, they seldom conclude without a dram of brandy or spirits, of which last they distil great quantities, and it may be had at reasonable rates; but of these also the government has the profit. They used to begin their entertainments at ten in the morning, and by twelve or one would drink themselves asleep; and after a short repose begin to drink afresh: for it is a general custom among the Russians, whether rich or poor, to sleep after dinner; and this probably may be one reason of plying foreigners so hard with liquor, so much complained of, that they want to get rid of them, that they may retire to rest.

In Russia, a person may travel cheap, and with great expedition both in summer and winter; the post-roads leading to the chief towns are very exactly measured, with the wersts marked, and the post-stage fixed at proper distances; for throughout the whole empire, and even in Siberia, a pillar, inscribed with the number of wersts, is erected at the end of each. The expence of travelling in this manner is so easy, that between Riga and Petersburg the hire of a post-horse for every werst is no more than two copeiks and a half, which is one penny three farthings sterling; between Novogorod and Petersburg, only one copeik; but between Novogorod and Moscow, but half a copeik.

Carriages for merchants are drawn by one horse: these vehicles are nine or ten feet long, and two or three broad, and are principally composed of two strong poles, supported by four wheels of near an equal size, and about as high as the fore wheels of our ordinary coaches, but made very slight: many of the rounds of the wheels are of one piece of wood, and open in one part for near an inch; and some of them are not shod with iron.

Spring and autumn are very bad seasons for travelling; as my caravan at this time experienced, says Mr. Hanway. There is a law in force, made in favour of the carriers, by which, any contract for transporting merchandize in the winter, becomes null and void, if the roads are broke up by a thaw, and thereby rendered impracticable to travel in sledges; in which case, the carriers have the liberty of taking out their horses, and leaving a caravan in any town they can most easily reach.

The caravans generally set out about twelve, both in the night and day, except in the heat of summer. In the winter, between Petersburg and Moscow, they usually travel seventy wersts in twenty-four hours (forty-seven miles English) but from Moscow to Zaritzen, only forty or fifty wersts.

Nothing, says our author, can be accommodated more for ease and dispatch, than travelling in sledges in frosty weather, when the snow is well trodden. As a proof of this, I may mention, continues he, that I slept without waking whilst I was carried a hundred wersts (sixty-six miles English.) The whole road was marked out with fir-trees, set in the snow on both sides, at the distance of about twenty yards; the consumption of timber on these occasions, at a moderate computation is a hundred and twenty-eight thousand, four hundred and eighty trees. There were also great piles of wood at certain distances, to be set on fire, to give light to the empress and her court, if they passed by in the night.

Her imperial majesty is drawn, on these occasions, in a house or room, which contains her bed, a table, and other conveniencies; where four persons may lodge, and be accommodated with every thing they want. This machine is set on a sledge, and drawn by twenty-four post-horses; if any of them fail on the road, others are ready to supply their place: she is generally three days and three nights on the way: there are several small palaces on the road, where she sometimes stops. Peter the Great once made the journey from Petersburg to Moscow in forty-six hours, being four hundred and eighty-eight English miles. We are told, that it is not uncommon to go it with post-horses in seventy-two hours; and that for fourteen or fifteen rubles a commodious sledge may be hired for that journey, drawn by a pair of post-horses.

The Russian language is mostly the old Slavonic, or rather a dialect of it, as that was of the old Scythian; but is so corrupt, and intermingled with other languages, that it is hard for a person who hath been used only to the pure Slavonian to understand it; and yet that is still retained in their divine service, in their bibles and homilies; and such as affect any degree of learning or politeness, affect to speak and write in it. Their character is a corrupt sort of Greek, ill-shaped, whose letters they have increased to the number of thirty-eight; but ignorance, till of late, had so thoroughly covered this whole country, that even the clergy and nobility, as well as the common people, neither could write, or scarcely read. A greater encouragement was given to it, and to arts and sciences, by their late great monarch, who, by bestowing his favours, and places of honour and profit, on those who were most learned, foreigners as well as subjects; and by setting up schools and academies, and inciting and caressing such as were most famed for all sorts of learning, and sending his young noblemen and gentlemen into foreign countries for education, hath gone a great way towards transplanting the muses into a climate till then unknown to them: and, had he lived longer, would in all likelihood have wholly effected it, in spite of the innate aversion of his subjects to them. There are not many universities in this country, nor any seminaries of learning, except two or three academies for arts and sciences, set up in the capital, and a few colleges or schools there, and in some other principal cities, for the instruction of youth, which yet, it is to be feared, have not met with that encouragement after that monarch's death as they did in his life-time, though more owing perhaps to the troubles that have happened in the ensuing reigns, than to dislike in any of his successors. But of this we shall treat more particularly under the article of learning.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Religion, Marriages, and Funeral Ceremonies of the RUSSIANS.

THE Russians boast, that they profess Christianity according to the pure antient rites and doctrine of the Greek church, though in many respects they have so far deviated from it, that they have introduced even more superstitious and ridiculous customs, and lay greater stress upon them, than the most bigotted papists in the world. They pretend, though without any foundation, that the apostle St. Andrew, whom they hold in great veneration, planted the gospel among them; when it plainly appears, according to Zonaras, that they were all sunk into the lowest pit of idolatry till the time of the great Volodimir, duke of Russia, in the year 989, when, having made several considerable conquests, he was honoured with a grand embassy from the emperor Basilus, and with him a bishop, and other clergymen, to convert the Russians to Christianity. Volodimir himself became one of the first converts, after which, having married the daughter of that emperor, he contributed all he could to establish the Christian faith through his dominions, and had the pleasure to see it effected, in a little time; and as they received it from a Constantinopolitan prelate, so they have always continued in the faith and communion of the Greek church, some few articles and superstitious customs excepted, not worth troubling our readers with. They differ from the church of Rome in their disbelief of transubstantiation, purgatory, the Pope's supremacy and infallibility, &c. but they seem even to out-do them in their worship of the Virgin, and other saints, crosses, reliques, and the like. They use auricular confession; communicate in both kinds; make the Athanasian creed the rule of their faith; and have a settled liturgy, viz. that of St. Basil, which they use three times a day. They observe four lents in the year with great strictness, besides fasting every Wednesday and Friday in the year. They reckon the creation of the world, which used to be their common æra, to have been above 7250 years ago, that is, about 1500 years earlier than any Christian nation hath fixed it, but can give no shadow of reason for it. They begin, also, the year in September; alledging, that it was more probable that the earth was created in autumn, stored with all its fruits in full maturity, than in March, when its whole surface is covered with ice and snow. But the czar hath since introduced the Roman calculation, though not without great struggle and difficulty. The time he chose to do it in was on the first of January 1700, in which a grand

grand jubilee was celebrated, at his metropolis, with the ringing of bells, firing of guns, and other solemn rejoicings.

The common people, and even some persons of rank, either by way of penance, or from other motives of humiliation, prostrate themselves on their faces at the entrance of the churches: and those that are conscious of having contracted any impurity, forbear entering the church, but stand at the door. The church bells are often rung; and as ringing is counted a branch of devotion, the towns are provided with a great number of bells, whose sound is almost continually heard.

They perform divine service entirely in the Slavonian tongue, which the people do not understand, as it is very different from the modern Russian; and this service consists of abundance of trifling ceremonies, long masses, singing, and prayers; all which are performed by the priests, the congregation only repeating, "Lord be merciful to me." They sometimes add a lecture from one of the fathers; but there are few churches in which sermons are ever delivered, and even in those they seldom preach.

There are neither seats nor forms in the Russian churches, but the whole congregation perform their devotion standing. On festival days the clergy are adorned with very rich vestments, somewhat resembling those of the Levitical priests described in the Old Testament. The people know very little of the Bible, which has never yet been translated into their language. They have, however, one in the Slavonian tongue, with annotations; nor are there any proper measures taken for the instruction of young people among the vulgar, in the principles of religion. The people never sing psalms or hymns, nor have any hymn books in their houses; for none but the choristers are allowed to sing psalms in the churches, that office being considered as their peculiar province, on which account they are held in some esteem among them.

Some of their great festivals are ordained by the Russian church, besides which there are every year others appointed by the civil power, when all public business and trades are suspended with greater strictness than even during the former; such as the anniversary of the birth, inauguration, and coronation of the person on the throne, and on the saint's day whose name he or she bears; and likewise the festival of the birth and name-day of other persons of the royal family; that of St. Alexander Neuski, is kept on the thirtieth of August; and on the twenty-seventh of June the anniversary of the battle of Pultowa.

In the Russian empire, there are a great number of convents for the religious of both sexes; but Peter I. prudently ordered that no person should be allowed to enter on a monastic life before fifty years of age: yet this regulation has been repealed since his death, it being thought proper to shew a greater condescension to the monasteries: however, no man is permitted to turn monk till he is thirty, nor no woman to turn nun till she is fifty; and even then not without the express approbation and licence of the holy synod. The abbot, or head of an abbey, is here called archimandrite, and the prior of a convent, igumen; and an abbess, igumenia.

There is in every village a church and a priest to officiate in it, and in the towns there is a church almost in every street. A crescent under the cross is erected on the tops of the towers of all the old churches.

As they acknowledge themselves conceived and born in sin, they therefore baptize their children immediately after the birth: if they are weak, this is done at home; but if well, in the church; the child being received at the church-door by the priest, who, signing the forehead with the sign of the cross, says, "The Lord preserve thy coming in and going out." He then fastens nine wax candles given by the godfathers, ready lighted, round the font. Having incensed the godfathers, and consecrated the water, each of them takes a wax-candle, and they all walk three times round the font, which always stands in the middle of the church, the clerk carrying the picture of St. John before them, and the priest reading out of a great book. The priest then asks the godfathers the name of the child, which having given him in writing, he puts it upon a small picture, which he holds upon the child's breast, while he mutters certain prayers; and then asks, whether the child believes in God the Father, the Son and the Holy Ghost; and the godfathers having answered in the affirmative, they instantly turn their backs to the font, to shew their aversion to the three next questions, whether the child forsakes the devil, his counsels, and his works? To each question the godfathers answer, yes, and as often spit on the ground. Then turning again to the font, the

priest asks, whether they promise that the child shall be brought up in the true Greek religion? and then, laying his hands upon him, says, "get out of this child, thou unclean spirit, and make room for the Holy Ghost." He then blows upon the child three times to drive away the devil, by whom they suppose children before baptism are possessed. After this, he cuts off a little of the child's hair, which he puts into a book; and having asked the godfathers, whether they desire the child should be baptized, he dips him three times in the water, with the usual words. He then puts a corn of salt into the child's mouth, and making the sign of the cross on his forehead, hands, breast, and back, with consecrated oil, puts him on a clean shirt, saying, "Thou art as clean from original sin as this shirt." They afterwards put a small cross on the child's neck, which he must wear till his death, or be denied Christian burial; a peculiar saint is also assigned him.

They never baptize two children in one font at the same time, as they imagine that the water is defiled by the original sin of the preceding child. As they suppose that children are regenerated by baptism, they therefore administer the sacrament to the infant, who is ever afterwards admitted to partake of it. They baptize their adult profelytes in a river, immersing them three times, mentioning the usual words.

The government of the church was, till the late czar Peter's time, by patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops. The metropolitan of Moscow was patriarch of all Russia, but was ordained by that of Constantinople till about the year 1588, when one Hieronymo, then the worthless patriarch of Constantinople, having been degraded by his clergy, came into Moscow, and, under pretence of having been deposed and persecuted by the Turks, found means to revenge himself on his clergy, and to get an immense sum of money for himself, by proposing to the then czar, Theodore Iwanowitz, to make his capital the patriarchal see of the whole Greek church, and thereby saving the trouble and charge of going to receive of its metropolitan his induction from that of Constantinople, as they had done till then. His proposal was accepted by the czar, and the whole clergy; and Hieronymo having, January 15, of that year, met the whole body of them in his pontificals, in the cathedral of Moscow, and made an harangue to them, suitable to the occasion, did, with great ceremony, resign his patriarchal staff, tiara, &c. into the hands of Jacob, the then metropolitan, and installed him; in a solemn manner, patriarch and head of the Greek church. This was followed by an instrument of his resignation, and his successor's installation, drawn in form, and laid up among the archives of that cathedral; after which, he retired, with all his wealth, to Rome.

On the elevation of this metropolitan (who had been, till then, the only one in all Russia) to his new patriarchate, two other archbishops were made metropolitans; viz. that of Novogorod Veliki, and that of Rostow; and since then two more were added, whereof one resideth at Casan, the other at Sarfcow. These metropolitans, we are told, were chosen by the czar, and the patriarch by them and the bishops; but since by the czar alone. This patriarchal dignity continued till the time of the late Peter the Great, who being just returned from his travels, upon the demise of the last incumbent, declared, that he would have no more prelates raised to that dignity, but that himself would be sole head and governor of the Russian church. However, he nominated the metropolitan of Rezan, a Pole by birth, and a man of learning, to take upon him the administration of all ecclesiastical affairs under him, and to be accountable only to him. Such opposition was made to this great change, by the bishops and clergy, that the czar, who could brook no controul, caused one of those bishops to be degraded, in order to deter the rest; and these insisting, that they had no power to depose one of their class, the Polish metropolitan was ordered to do it, who took away his mitre and dignity accordingly. Ever since, the czar hath taken upon himself the supreme authority in the Russian church, and hath introduced learning among his bishops and clergy, who were before so grossly ignorant, that they could not so much as preach to their flocks, but, instead of sermons, used only some short homilies of some of their Greek saints, with which they generally concluded the divine service, after they had sung some psalms and hymns, the Athanasian creed, and the gospodo, or litany. The monastic life is indulged to both sexes, though of the women more are forced into it than take it up out of choice.

Till the late glorious reign of Peter I. not only persons of different religions, but even of any country, were for-

bid to come into these dominions ; at present, that absurd law is repealed, and all strangers are invited to come and settle there, of what country or religion soever. The Lutherans and Calvinists have the free exercise of theirs, excepting that they are not allowed bells in their churches. Those of the church of Rome are the only ones, of all Christian denominations, that ever, till of late, could obtain that privilege, though no endeavours and interpositions from Poland, France, Germany, and other Roman Catholic countries, have been spared to obtain it ; and though there are great multitudes of artists, merchants, soldiers, and officers of that religion, settled in Moscow. But though they are tolerated, the Jesuits are forbid to come among them. The Arminians have their churches without bells, and other sects meeting houses. The Mohamedans are also tolerated, and make up about a thirtieth part of the inhabitants ; and the Pagans are still more numerous, especially towards the north : these differ much in their notions and worship, and some of them are so stupid and ignorant, that they are but one remove from brutes.

Several popes, in the thirteenth century, laboured hard to put the great duke of Russia out of conceit with the Greek religion, but without success. The doctors of the Sorbonne at Paris have since made the same attempt ; for, when Peter the Great suppressed the patriarchate, they endeavoured, but in vain, to persuade him to bring about an union with the church of Rome. For further particulars relative to the Greek church, we must refer our readers to what we have given on that head, in treating of their religion in the Ottoman empire, p. 155.

We shall now proceed to give an account of the marriages and funeral ceremonies of the Russians. With respect to the former, when every thing is agreed upon between the parents, if they are of quality, a woman, called the *suacha*, is appointed by the friends of the bridegroom, and another by those of the bride, to take joint care of the nuptials : and these provide every thing fit for the chamber of the new-married couple. The bed is made of forty sheaves of rye laid in good order, and encompassed with several barrels of wheat, barley, and oats : when all is ready, the bridegroom goes late in the evening, accompanied by his kindred, the priest who is to marry him leading the van on horseback. They are received at the bride's door by her relations, invited to come in, and to sit down at table, where only three dishes of meat are served up, and even these are not to be touched by any one present. At the upper end of the table a place is left for the bridegroom, which is taken up by a young lad appointed for that purpose, while the bridegroom is talking with the bride's friends : but at length he having prevailed on the youth by some presents to resign his place to him, takes his seat, and the bride, richly dressed, is brought in with a veil over her face, and placed next the bridegroom ; two lads, at the same time holding a piece of taffety between them, to prevent their seeing each other. The *suacha* then comes in, and paints her, ties up her hair in two knots, puts a coronet on her head, and all the ornaments of a married woman. The coronet is of gold or silver gilt, and lined with silk, having on both sides, near the ears, five or six rows of pearls, hanging down in strings on her breast. The upper garment, which has sleeves an ell and a half wide, is embroidered at the edges with gold and silver, especially about the neck, where it is stiff with embroidery, for the breadth of three inches. They sometimes bestow a thousand crowns upon this robe. The bridegroom is then painted by his *suacha*, whilst the women upon the benches sing together. After this, the company go to church, where the young couple stand upon a piece of taffety, and have a canopy of the same silk over their heads. Here having made offerings of fried meats, fish, and pastry, the priest gives them his benediction, and taking the man by his right hand, and the woman by her left, he asks them three times, whether they are both willing to be married, and to love one another as they ought to do. To which having answered yes, the whole company join hands, and the priest sings the 128th psalm ; which being ended, he puts a garland of rue upon the heads of the young couple, and if one of them be a widow or a widower, about their shoulders, saying, " Increase and multiply. Whom God hath joined together, let no man put asunder." While the priest pronounces these words, each of the people invited to the wedding lights a wax candle, and one of them gives a glass of wine to the priest, which he drinks ; and the married couple having pledged the same three times each, the bridegroom throws down the glass, and he and the bride, treading it under their feet, say, " May they thus fall under our feet, and be trodden to

pieces, who shall endeavour to sow division or discontent between us." The women then throw some flax or hempseed on the young couple, wishing them much prosperity ; and some pull the bride by the robe, as if they would take her from the bridegroom, to whom she sticks close, while they seem unable to remove her away from him.

When the nuptial ceremony is ended, the bride returns in a sledge or coach by the light of six flambeaux, and the bridegroom on horseback. The men immediately sit down at the table, which is covered with provisions ; while the women conduct the bride into her chamber, undress her, and, having put her to bed, come to the bridegroom, who rising from the table, is conducted to the bride's chamber by six or eight young men, each with a wax candle in his hand, which they stick in the barrels of wheat, barley, and oats, that stand round the bed. The bride no sooner sees the bridegroom, than she slips on a morning-gown lined with fur, and rising meets and salutes him with a low inclination of the head ; and this used to be the first time of the bridegroom's seeing her face. They then sit down to a table, where, among other provisions, they have a roasted fowl, which the bridegroom pulls asunder, and throwing over his shoulder the part he lights on first, they eat the rest, and then go to bed ; while the guests employ themselves in several charms to promote the happiness of the new-married couple. Some time after, an old servant of the house, who attends at the door, comes and asks whether the business be done ; and the bridegroom answering, yes, the word is given for the trumpets and timbrels to strike up, and these sound till the new-married couple are conducted to the stoves, where they bathe themselves apart. After they have been well washed in the bath with water, mead, and wine, the bride sends the bridegroom a shirt richly embroidered, especially at the neck, and a rich habit. The two next days they spend in the farther celebration of their nuptials.

The lower class of people are satisfied with fewer ceremonies ; for the night before the wedding the bridegroom sends some clothes, a comb, and a looking-glass ; and the next day the priest is brought in by two lads, carrying lighted wax-candles. As soon as he enters the house, he gives his benediction first to the lads, and then to the guests. The young couple being set down at the table, the lads holding a piece of taffety between them, the *suacha* dresses the bride's head, which being done, a looking-glass is brought, and the young couple joining their cheeks, look and smile one upon the other, while the two *suachas* cast hops upon them ; after which they go to church, where they are married with the usual ceremonies.

Marriage being esteemed a very sacred thing among them, polygamy is forbidden under pain of death, the emperor himself being allowed only one wife at a time ; though if she proves barren, he may send her into a monastery, and marry another. Second marriages they consider as allowable, but not very commendable ; a third marriage is not to be undertaken but upon very weighty considerations ; and a fourth deemed a capital offence.

Funerals, like other public actions here, are performed with great ceremony ; for the soul of the sick person is no sooner departed than the widow sends for her kindred and friends, who standing round the corpse break out into lamentations. They then wash the body, and having put a clean shirt or shroud about him, with a new pair of thin Russia leather shoes on his feet, they lay him, with his arms across his breast, in a coffin made of the trunk of a tree, and in the mean while send a present to the priest to pray for his soul. The coffin is covered with a piece of cloth, or the coat of the deceased.

The richer sort, if the season will permit, keep the body eight or ten days, during which the priest comes every day to purify it with incense, and by sprinkling it with holy water. At length the priest proceeds with the picture of the patron saint of the deceased, followed by four virgins, who are nearest related to the latter, and make very mournful lamentations, but begin and leave off exactly at a time. Then comes the dead body, carried by six men upon their shoulders ; but if the deceased be a monk or a nun, this office is performed by those of his or her own profession. The corpse is surrounded by several priests, who pour incense upon it to keep off the evil spirits, all the while they are singing psalms : then follow the kindred and friends with wax-candles, but without any order.

On their coming to the grave, the coffin is uncovered ; and the priest holding over it the picture of the patron saint, says several prayers, in which he often repeats, " Lord, look upon this soul in righteousness." Mean while the widow continues her lamentations, and the relations

lations and friends, after kissing either the deceased or his coffin, take their leave. The priest then takes a piece of paper, which is a kind of ticket for his entrance into paradise, signed by the bishop of the place and the confessor. This he puts into the coffin, which is then shut and put into the grave, with the face turned towards the east; while those who return to the house of mourning are supplied with good liquor to drown sorrow.

They allot forty days for the time of mourning; during which three feasts are made for the relations of the deceased, on the third, ninth, and twentieth day after the burial; during which the priest says certain prayers morning and evening over the grave, which for that purpose is covered with a small hut of mats: for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, they maintain that there are two places to which the souls retire after their separation from the body, there to wait till the day of judgment, some in a pleasant and delightful abode, where they enjoy the conversation of angels; others in a gloomy and dismal valley, where they see nothing but devils; and believe that, while the soul is yet on its way, it may be diverted from the evil road by the prayers of the priests and monks, provided they are sufficiently fee'd for that business.

S E C T. VIII.

Treating of the Learning, Arts, Manufactures, Trade, Weights, Measures, Coins, &c. of the RUSSIANS.

BEFORE the reign of Peter the Great, learning was but little known in Russia; but this illustrious monarch spared neither expence nor pains to dispel the clouds of ignorance which overspread his empire, and to inspire his subjects with a taste for arts and sciences: he founded an academy of sciences, an university, and a seminary at Petersburg, besides other schools in the different parts of his empire; invited persons of learning from England, Germany, France, and Holland. to settle at Petersburg; collected a great number of books; and encouraged his subjects to travel into those countries where the arts and sciences flourished. The Russians are far from wanting talents and a disposition for learning. History, geography, and the mathematics, are the studies to which they chiefly apply themselves.

There are only three universities in this vast empire; namely, those of Petersburg, Moscow, and Kiow; so that learning may be said to be yet only in its infancy; however, the members of the academy of sciences not only publish collections of their own memoirs, but compose a variety of books for the instruction of youth in the sciences, and make translations of the most useful books published in foreign countries. Peter the Great established the mystery of printing, that everlasting guardian and friend of the arts, in Russia. His types, and other implements for that purpose, were brought from Holland. A press, with types, had been indeed sent from Poland to Moscow, and a printing-house erected, by the approbation of one of the former czars; but the building was set on fire in the night, and burnt to the ground, by the procurement, as was generally supposed, of the ignorant and superstitious priests, who thought all books, especially such as treated on their own history and the miracles of the saints, to be of very mischievous tendency.

In Russia, the mechanic arts and trades, are continually improving, and these improvements are far from being entirely owing to the foreigners who reside among them; for the natives being spurred on by emulation, frequently equal, and sometimes excel their masters. They were formerly almost solely employed in agriculture, feeding of cattle, hunting and fishing. It is true, they excelled in making Russia leather, which had been long practised by them; but they were entirely unacquainted with the more ingenious mechanic arts. Great numbers of excellent artificers, invited hither by Peter the Great, settling in his dominions, the Russians shewed that, with proper instructions, they did not want the capacity of being taught; and they have now flourishing manufactures of velvet, silk, linen, and woollen stuffs; also copper, brass, iron, steel, and tin, are wrought; and great guns, fire arms, gun-powder, wire, cordage, sail-cloth, paper, parchment, and glass, are made in Russia. All these manufactures, however, are not brought to such perfection as to be carried on without the assistance of foreigners, and the additional supplies of those commodities from abroad. Besides, those made by Russian workmen are sold for one half, or a third part less than those made by foreigners at Petersburg and

Moscow; and the latter sort will not do more than half or a third part of the service. The Russian peasants are their own artists, and make all the utensils they want. Ship-building is carried to great perfection here, the Russian navy consisting, at this time, of a great number of capital ships of war.

It may not be improper, in this place, to relate the manner in which caviar is prepared, as it forms a considerable branch of their commerce. It is made of the roes of the fish called beluga, and the sturgeon. The best is made of the beluga roes, and is of two sorts, the granulated, and the pressed. The former, which is most esteemed, is prepared in autumn and winter, but the latter is made in summer, and both sorts are exposed to the southern parts of Europe. The granulated sort is first salted, after taking away the stringy part, with salt well cleaned, and made into brine: and, being drained from the oily parts, it is put into kegs for exportation. Caviar is most palatable when fresh and spread on bread with salt, leeks, and pepper, and is therefore sent in the winter, frozen, to all parts of the empire; but it cannot well be exported fresh, as, without salt, it is soon tainted by warmth.

The Russian empire is extremely well situated for commerce; and her exports are, iron, hemp, wood, hides, grain, pot-ash, wax, cordage, copper, flax, furs, lintseed, fish, leather, tallow, materials for ship-building, &c. The imports are, sugar, beaver-skins, tin, dye-woods, shalloons, Norwich stuffs, brass-wire, spirituous liquors, silk, spices, indigo, English beer, lead, cloths, flannels, Manchester velvets, wines, fruits, china, paper, &c. The commerce is with Great Britain, Ireland, Holland, France, Germany, Poland, Turkey, Persia, China, &c.

The Russians were strangers to the course of exchange, till it was introduced among them in the year 1670. Money was then so very scarce in this empire, that foreigners were obliged to barter their goods for those of Russia. Most of the foreign merchants then resided at Moscow, but took a journey in the summer to Archangel, where they had their warehouses and factors. This practice continued till 1721, when, by order of Peter the Great, the seat of commerce was removed from Archangel to Petersburg; on which the foreign traders removed their factories thither, where they are not allowed to keep the goods consigned to them in their own warehouses, but are obliged to deposit them in magazines built for that purpose by the government, to which they pay rent for warehouse room, in proportion to the quantity of their goods.

In Petersburg, the merchants and traders, as in other countries, consist of natives and foreigners. The former may sell either by wholesale or retail; but the latter by wholesale only, and that to none but the natives: for they are not permitted to sell any thing to one another, or to have any commercial dealings together. Most of the foreign traders at Petersburg are only factors, and the rest, who trade on their own bottoms, deal chiefly in grocery. The factors are intrusted with large capitals, and, without engaging in commerce for themselves, may raise handsome fortunes. The Russian traders, who bring goods to Petersburg, and carry foreign commodities farther into the continent, do not reside in that city, but annually bring their goods thither in May or June by water, and in September, October, and December, return with foreign commodities; but the wealthy save the fatigue of travelling, by sending their factor to Petersburg.

Foreign merchandize is generally sold at a twelve-month's credit; but Russian commodities must be paid for on the delivery of the goods, except the natives find a difficulty in selling their stock; in which case they deal by way of exchange; yet will not barter goods for goods, but generally insist on one fourth, one third, or one half of the value of the whole in specie; and of late foreign merchants deal for the Russian commodities by contract, and even advance the money to the Russians in winter, upon condition of their delivering in the goods at a settled price the following summer; but these contracts are entered in the custom-house books, for the greater security.

Considerable privileges in trade were enjoyed by the English, so early as the reign of the czar Iwan Basilowitz, to whom Captain Chancellor delivered a letter from Edward VI. in 1553, and received a licence to trade, which was renewed by Peter the Great. In 1742 a treaty of commerce was concluded between Russia and England, by which it was stipulated, that the English should be allowed the privilege of sending goods through Russia into Persia; but Captain Elton, an Englishman, having entered into the service of Nadir Shah, and built ship on the Caspian Sea

Sea for that monarch, the Russians put a stop to this trade, to which the troubles in Persia contributed. The English, however, still carry on a considerable trade with Russia, which exceeds that of any other nation.

Next to the English, the Dutch carried on the greatest trade with the Russians. Bills of exchange are drawn at Petersburg on Amsterdam only; on which account the traders of other countries, who give commission for buying Russian commodities at Petersburg, are obliged to procure credit, or to have proper funds at Amsterdam.

The trade to Petersburg is now carried to a great height, for the number of ships which entered that port in 1751, from England, Holland, France, Norway, Denmark, Lubec, Hamburgh, Stetin, Rostoc, Kiel, Prussia, Sweden, and Dantzic, amounted to two hundred and ninety. Indeed there is no nation in the world more inclined to commerce than the Russians are at present; but they are so full of chicanery and art, that a foreigner cannot be too much on his guard in his dealings with them.

The Russian weights are a solothnic, which is one sixth of an ounce, and is divided into halves, quarters, and eighths: a Russian pound, equal to ninety-six solothnics: a pud, or pood, equal to thirty-six pounds averdupois: a berkowetz, equal to ten puds. The other weights are the same with those of Germany. The measures of length are the arshine, or Russian ell, equal to twenty-eight inches and one tenth English measure; a werfoc, which is one sixteenth of an arshine; and a farshen, or fathom, contains three arshines.

The Russian coins, ducats excepted, have all of them inscriptions in the Russian tongue. The gold coins are imperial ducats; and the largest silver coin is the ruble, the value of which rises and falls according to the course of exchange. A ruble in Russia is equal to an hundred copeiks, or four shillings and sixpence sterling. The other silver coins are half rubles, which are called poltinnics, and quarter rubles. A gryphe, or griwe, is of the value of ten copeiks, and ten griwes are equal to a ruble. The copper coins are, a copeik, which is of the value of about a halfpenny; a denga, or denushka, two of which make a copeik; and a polushka, which is a quarter of a copeik.

No foreign pieces are current in Russia except ducats, Holland rixdollars, and Albert dollars.

The following coins, beside the Russian, are all current in Livonia: a white schelling, which is worth two black schellings: three of the former make one grosh; which is seven fifteenths of a penny: a farding, which is one grosh and a half: a Riga mark, which is six groshes: a Polish guider, which is five Riga marks: a kopa-shock, or lowenthaler, equal to twenty-five groshes; and a rix-dollar, at sixty fardings value.

SECT. IX.

Containing the Ancient and Modern History of the RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

IF we trace the Russians to their original, they will appear to be as antient a people as any upon the face of the earth: for their ancestors were those Scythians who possessed Mount Caucasus, or the Dagittan mountains, which lie between the Euxine and the Caspian Seas, immediately after the flood; even before their brethren descended from the mountains of Armenia or Arrarat, into the plains of Mesopotamia between the Tigris and Euphrates, as has been shewn in the history of Germany. The term Russe signifies a wanderer, as all the Scythians, or northern nations were, till very lately. If we only regard the time, when the Russians and other tribes of Scythians, or Tartars, came to fix their habitations, and live in towns, we need not descend far into antiquity: for Kioff, or Kiow, upon the borders of Poland, is held to be the first town the Russians built, and Volodomir their first prince, who reigned about the year of our Lord 1000. But it is not to be understood that the Scythians lived without any government till then; for government was certainly coeval with the world; but till then, the patriarchal form generally prevailed in Scythia, as it does in some parts of it (now called Tartary) to this day: and, indeed, in many other parts of the world, both in the eastern and western continent, we find the patriarchal government still prevail; and these, like other states, will probably be united in time by force or compact, and grow up into kingdoms and empires. This country of Russia, after the patriarchal form was abolished, was governed by a multitude of petty sovereigns, which are usually stiled dukes,

till Volodomir united several of these dukedoms into one, about the year 1000, and obtained the name of The Great Duke, and sometimes was called Czar or Cæsar; forming one potent state, which the sovereigns of Cazan and Astracan becoming jealous of, made war upon the Russians, and compelled them to become tributary to those princes.

After this, John Basilowitz, or Vasiliwits Grotzden, united many more of these duchies under his government, and expelled the Tartars, who were then in possession of the castle of Moscow, in 1450, and subdued the provinces of Novogorod and Twere. His son added those of Pleskow and Smolensko, and John Basilowitz his grandson, in 1540, conquered the kingdoms of Cazan and Astracan, and added Siberia to the Russian dominions: and in his reign it was, that the English, commanded by captain Chancellor, arrived at Archangel, and began to trade with Russia, which till then had never been visited by the ships of any nation. The Cassacks and Circassians, situated near the mouths of the Wolga, Don, and Nieper, submitted to the czar Alexis Michaelowitz; and many of the Calmucks also acknowledged themselves to be the subjects of this kingdom.

In 1613 Michael, descended from the czar John Basilowitz, ascended the throne of Russia, by the unanimous consent of the states. He was succeeded in 1645, by his son Alexis Michaelowitz; after whose death, his son Theodore Alexowitz succeeded to the throne; who dying without issue in 1682, appointed John, his brother by the same mother, and Peter his half-brother, to reign, jointly, which they did, until the year 1696, when czar John died, leaving three daughters by his consort Proscovia Fedorowna Solticow, viz. the princess Anne, married to Frederic William, duke of Courland, the 13th of November, 1710; the princess Catherine, married to Charles Leopold, duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, the 10th of April 1716, and the princess Proscovia, who died unmarried.

The czar Peter was the son of czar Alexis Michaelowitz, by his second wife Natolia Keritroun Neriskin: he married the princess Ottokesa Federowna, a subject of Russia, by whom he had issue the czarowitz Alexis, born in 1690; but was divorced from his wife, in 1692. The young czar married the princess Charlotta Christina Sophia, daughter of Lewis Adolphus, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, and sister of the empress, consort of Charles VI. in 1711, and died in prison in 1721, being then under sentence of death for a conspiracy against his father Peter the Great, leaving issue a son named Peter Alexowitz, born in 1715, and afterwards emperor.

Peter the Great married to his second wife the lady Catherine Alexonna, in 1711 (with whom he had cohabited some years before;) he had issue by her the princess Anne, married to Frederick duke of Holstein, and the princess Elizabeth, who was afterwards crowned empress of Russia. In the year 1695, Peter the Great entered into a war with the Turks; and the year following took Asoph situated near the Palus Mæotis, which opened him a way into the Euxine sea; and having determined to build a fleet, and share the navigation of that with the Turks, and traffick with the nations bordering upon it (though he had not at that time a single ship of war, or a ship carpenter in all his dominions) he resolved to travel into the maritime countries of Europe, where he might meet with artists that could instruct him in ship-building, and to procure carpenters to return home with him, and assist in raising a royal navy. Nor did he propose only to qualify himself and his people for the sea-service, but to encourage all other arts and sciences; and, by offering great rewards to learned men and mechanics, induce them to accompany him to Russia.

Peter the Great first visited Holland incognito, and, arriving at Amsterdam, took a house near the principal dock-yards, where he lived with some of his noblemen, and worked part of the day with the ax among the ship-builders, as he obliged the noblemen, who attended him, to do, dressed in the habit of Dutch skippers. Another part of the day was taken up with rowing and sailing upon the water; and sometimes he made visits to the Dutch burghers, with whom he would be very merry, having learned Dutch of the factors of that nation, before he set out from Moscow; but having seen some English ships while he was in Holland, he was much better pleased with their beauty and proportion, than with those of the Dutch: whereupon he determined to visit England, and having communicated that design to king William, who was then in Holland, a convoy was provided to attend him thither; but

but still chusing to remain incognito, a house was taken for him, when he arrived at London, in York Buildings, near the Thames, where he resided but a little while; for the construction of ships being his chief business, he removed to Mr Evelin's house at Deptford, which opened into the king's yard, being attended by the marquis of Carmarthen, son to the duke of Leeds, who was then one of the English admirals. Here the builders communicated to the czar their draughts, and the manner of laying down by proportion any ship or vessel of any bulk whatever, with the rules for, and building a ship according to it, which he saw practised with much pleasure both in the king's and merchants yards, which made him repent his having spent so much time in Holland, where their method is less artificial, observing, that he should have been a bungling ship-builder, if he had not visited England, and declaring he would have all his ships built after the English model: he took several builders home with him, to whom he offered considerable salaries. The chief of these builders, was a son of Sir Anthony Dyer, who was sent to France by the court of England, in the reign of Charles II. to instruct the French in ship building, who chose also to follow our models, and, it is said, have improved upon us of late. He seemed extremely pleased with the marquis of Carmarthen, who worked with him in the king's yards, and sailed with him on the Thames, shewing him how near the wind a vessel might sail, and what way she would make when the wind was contrary, as well as when it was fair; and as an acknowledgment for the services the marquis had done him, he made him a grant of the sole importation of Tobacco in his dominions.

During his stay in London, the czar was never idle: he attended the founderies for great guns and mortars, and enquired into almost every mechanic art: and having resided here between three and four months, king William made him a present, on his return, of the finest yacht in England, called the Royal Transport, built like a frigate, and carrying twenty-four guns, which had been contrived by the marquis of Carmarthen, to carry the king over to Holland, during the war with France.

In 1698, the czar arrived at Vienna, in his way from England towards Russia, and received advice of a conspiracy in his dominions to depose him, and declare his throne vacant, since he had remained so long absent from his dominions: but arriving at Moscow, he found that general Gordon, a native of Scotland, had defeated the disaffected, and all was quiet there. The next year was taken up in improving his revenues, and disciplining his army; but, above all, in increasing his navy, which, in three years time consisted of forty men of war, ten frigates, bomb-vessels, &c. twenty whole galleys, and thirty half galleys.

This prince, in the year 1700, entered into a confederacy with the Poles, Danes, and Brandenburgers, against the young king of Sweden, under pretence that the Swedes had possessed themselves of some places in Ingria that belonged to the Russians; and the rest of the confederates made much the same pretensions; for which some of them paid very dear in the ensuing war, and particularly the czar, who having besieged Narva with one hundred thousand men, his army was defeated by eighteen thousand Swedes commanded by Charles XII. in person, and the siege raised. Voltaire relates, that there were but eight thousand men in the Swedish army, and that it was one of the most terrible defeats that ever was known, the Swedes killing eighteen thousand Russians, and taking as many prisoners, among whom were most of their general officers. But a more particular account of this battle will be found in the history of Sweden.

The czar, at the time of this battle, was marching at the head of forty thousand men towards Narva, in order to surround the Swedes on every side; but receiving advice of the defeat of his army before that town, he thought fit to retire; saying, "he knew the Swedes would be victorious for some time; but, they would, in the end, teach the Russians to beat the Swedes." The citizens of Moscow were in such a consternation, when they understood the ill situation of their affairs, that they imputed their misfortunes to the force of magick: nothing but a supernatural power, they imagined, could have defeated so fine an army as lay before Narva: so much were they persuaded of this, that prayers were ordered to be put up to St. Nicholas, the patron of their nation, to protect them against these devilish Swedes: the form of one of them being of the following tenor: "O thou, who art our perpetual comforter in all our adversities, great St. Nicholas, infinitely powerful; by what sin have we of-

fended thee, in our sacrifices, genuflexions, bowings, and thanksgivings, that thou hast forsaken us? We have implored thy assistance against these terrible, insolent, enraged, dreadful, insuperable destroyers; when, like lions and bears, who have lost their young, they have fallen upon us, terrified, wounded, and slain by thousands, us who are thy people. As it is impossible this should have happened without diabolical influence and enchantment, we beseech thee, O great St. Nicholas, to be our champion and standard-bearer, to deliver us from this troop of sorcerers, and drive them far from our coasts, with the recompence which they deserve."

After the victory gained by the king of Sweden at Narva, he marched the whole length of Livonia, and having obliged the Saxons to raise the siege of Riga, gained another victory over them upon the banks of the Dwina. He then pursued the Saxons into Poland, and obtained a third victory near Cracow: but having left no more than eight thousand men in Livonia, the Russians, who had introduced near one hundred thousand men into that province, surrounded the Swedish general Slippenbock, and destroyed all his infantry, though that general broke through with his horse, and retreated to Pernaw, a port-town on the Livonian sea; and there remaining no force to defend the open country, the Russians plundered Livonia from one end to the other, making a multitude of prisoners, and driving them in chains as far as Astracan, where most of them perished. The Russians afterwards surprised Dorpt, and took Narva by storm, putting to death all they found in arms, and giving the plunder of the town to the soldiers. Thus did this hero, the king of Sweden, abandon his faithful Livonian subjects, in order to depose Augustus king of Poland.

Riga was afterwards surrendered to the czar, being in a manner depopulated by the plague: the whole province was soon after reduced by the czar's forces, and Marienburg among the rest, where a young virgin, or, as some relate, a wife, was taken prisoner, in 1702, whom czar Peter advanced to the imperial throne in his life-time, and appointed his successor after his decease. She was called by the name of Catharine, being the daughter of a poor woman, who lived in a neighbouring village, as Voltaire relates. She never knew her father, but was baptized by the name of Martha, and registered among the bastard children. The vicar of the parish took her, and charitably provided for her until she was fourteen years of age, and then she was retained in the service of a Lutheran minister, whose name was Gluck, in the city of Marienburg. Being about eighteen years old, she married a Swedish dragoon, in 1702, who going out the same day, or the next, upon a party that was defeated by the Russians, he was never heard of more; and some few days after, she herself was made prisoner by the Russian general Czeremetoff, who made a present of her to prince Menzikoff, who finding her genius as well as beauty, exceeding any thing he had ever met with in the sex, could not forbear boasting before the czar, of the present which had been made him; and he represented her in so amiable a light to that prince, that he immediately commanded her to be sent for: at which, it is said, Menzikoff trembled, when, too late he saw his error, being deeply smitten with her charms himself, as the czar also was, as soon as she appeared; and from that hour he entertained her in his palace, he observing in her an astonishing capacity; and after a thorough experience of the greatness of her soul, he proceeded to marry her in the year 1711. During his reign, she acted the part both of a minister and a general: her advice was regarded more than that of any of his council, and she attended him both in his land and naval expeditions, extricating him out of the greatest difficulties, particularly in the battle he fought with the Turks on the banks of the river Pruth, and in the sea-fight with the Swedes in the gulf of Finland: she renounced the Lutheran religion, in which she had been educated, on her marriage with the czar, and professed herself of the Greek communion, being re-baptized according to the rites of the Russian church. But to return to the part the Russians had in this war.

While the king of Sweden was employed in deposing king Augustus, and advancing Stanislaus to the throne of Poland, the czar marched into Lithuania at the head of fifty thousand men, and made himself master of that whole province, and of the duchy of Courland: king Charles being at that time pursuing Augustus into his German dominions: The Russians and Saxons also having united their forces in Great Poland, defeated an army of eight thousand Swedes and fourteen thousand Poles, of

the party of king Stanislaus, commanded by the Swedish general Mardefield, which would have given Augustus an opportunity of remounting his throne, if his plenipotentiaries, appointed to treat with those of Sweden, had not, at that instant, concluded a treaty, whereby king Augustus was obliged to relinquish the crown of Poland, and acknowledge Stanislaus the lawful king; which he thought fit to submit to, rather than provoke king Charles to destroy Saxony, of which he was then possessed.

As the czar paid no regard to the treaty Augustus had concluded with the Swedes, he therefore introduced still more forces into Poland, with which he plundered the estates of all such as appeared to be in the interest of Stanislaus, sending all the furniture, pictures, libraries, statues and curiosities he found in the palaces or noblemen's houses, to Moscow, and rendering the country a perfect desert. The czar afterwards taking up his quarters at Grodno, and cantoning the greatest part of his army in the province of Lithuania, the king of Sweden advanced towards him in the month of January, and having passed the river Niemen, within two leagues of Grodno, before the czar knew any thing of his march, the czar left the town by the north gate, when Charles entered by the south. The king had with him about six hundred of his guards, the rest not being able to follow him, and the czar fled with above two thousand men, upon supposition that the whole army was entering into Grodno; but having learnt that very day from a Polish deserter, that he had quitted the place to no more than six hundred men, and that the body of the enemy's army was still above five leagues distant, he lost no time, but sent a detachment of one thousand five hundred horse in the evening to surprize the king of Sweden in the town. The one thousand five hundred Muscovites, assisted by the darkness of the night, advanced as far as the first Swedish guard without being known; this guard consisted of thirty men, and they alone sustained the effort of one thousand five hundred for half a quarter of an hour.

The king, who lay at the other end of the town, came up presently with his six hundred guards, and the Muscovites fled with precipitation: his army was not long without joining him, nor he without pursuing the enemy. All the Muscovite troops, dispersed in Lithuania, retired in haste eastward into the Palatinate of Minsky, near the frontiers of Moscow, where the rendezvous was appointed. The Swedes, whom the king also divided into several bodies, did not cease to pursue them for above thirty leagues of their way: those who fled, and those who pursued, made excessive hard marches almost every day, though in the midst of winter. All seasons had been long equal to the foldiers of Charles and of the czar; the sole terror which the name of Charles carried with it, then made the difference between the Muscovites and the Swedes.

Nothing but morasses, deserts, mountains, and immense forests, lie eastward from Grodno to the Boristhenes: in such places as are cultivated, there was no provision to be found: the country people buried all their grain under-ground, and whatever else could be preserved there. In order to discover these subterraneous magazines, they were obliged to sound the earth with long poles pointed with iron. The Muscovites and Swedes served themselves with these provisions by turns: but they were not always found, and, when they were, they did not prove sufficient.

These difficulties were foreseen by the king of Sweden, who had provided biscuit for the subsistence of his army, so that he met with no interruption in his march. After he had crossed the forest of Minsky, where his men were obliged to cut down trees to make way for his artillery and baggage, he found himself, on the 25th of June 1708, before the river Berezhina, over against Borislow. The czar had collected together in that place the best part of his troops, and intrenched himself to advantage; his design being to hinder the Swedes from passing that river. Charles posted some of his regiments on the banks of the Berezhina, directly against Borislow, as though he meant to attempt the passage in sight of the enemy. At the same time he led his army about three leagues up the river; and having thrown a bridge over it, made his way through a body of three thousand men, who defended that post, and marched to the enemy without stopping. The Muscovites did not wait, however, for his coming up, but immediately decamped, and retreated towards the Boristhenes, spoiling all the roads, and spreading destruction wherever they passed, that by this means they might retard the progress of the Swedes. But Charles surmounted all diffi-

culties; and advancing still towards the Boristhenes, he met with twenty thousand Muscovites in his way, intrenched in a place called Hollofin, behind a morass, which could not be come at without passing a river. The Swedish hero did not wait for the assault till the rest of his infantry joined him, but threw himself into the water at the head of his foot guards, and crossed the river, with the water sometimes above his shoulders. While he thus marched against the enemy, he ordered his horse to pass round the morass, and fall upon them in flank.

The Muscovites, astonished that no barrier could defend them, were routed; and the Swedish horse, having made their way through the enemy, joined the king in the midst of the battle. He then mounted on horseback; but some time after, finding a young Swedish gentleman, named Gullenstiern, whom he very much esteemed, wounded in the field, and unable to march, he obliged him to take his horse, and continued to command on foot at the head of his infantry. Of all the battles he had ever fought, this, in all probability, was the most glorious; for here he was exposed to the most dangers, and shewed the greatest abilities: the memory of it is preserved by a medal, with the inscription, "*Sylvæ, paludes, aggeres, hostes victi*, that is, "*woods and marshes passed, armies and enemies subdued*," on one side; and on the other, "*Victrices copias alium laturum in orbem*," that is, "*marching with his victorious troops into a new world*." The Muscovites, being thus obliged to fly, repassed the Boristhenes, which separates the dominions of Poland from their own country.

Charles lost no time in the pursuit; he crossed that river after them at Mohilou, the last town in Poland, which sometimes belongs to the czar, and sometimes to the Poles, according to the common fate of frontier places. And the czar, thus seeing his empire, in which he was giving birth to arts and trade, become a prey to a war which in a little time might ruin all his projects, and perhaps take from him his throne, was inclined to a peace, and even condescended to transmit proposals, by a Polish gentleman, to the Swedish army. Charles XII. who had not been used to grant peace to his enemies, answered, "I will treat with the czar at Moscow." When this haughty answer was reported to the czar, "my brother Charles, says he, still affects to act the Alexander; but I flatter myself he will not find a Darius in me." About thirty leagues northward from Mohilou, the place where the king passed the Boristhenes, along the river, and still upon the frontiers of Poland and Moscow, is situated the country of Smolensko, in which lies the great road from Poland to Moscow. The way the czar retreated, and the Swedes followed by long marches, and so close, that part of the rear-guard of the Muscovites was frequently engaged with the dragoons of the Swedish van-guard. The latter had generally the advantage; but they weakened themselves even by conquering, in these small skirmishes, which were never decisive, and in which they always lost abundance of men.

On the 22d of September, in the year 1708, the king attacked a body of ten thousand horse, and six thousand Calmucks near Smolensko. He fell upon this army with only six regiments of horse, and four thousand foot, broke their ranks upon the first onset, at the head of his Ostrogothick regiment, and forced the enemy to retreat. He advanced upon them through rough and hollow ways, where the Calmucks lay hid; they then appeared again and threw themselves between the regiment where the king was fighting, and the rest of the Swedish army. The Muscovites and Calmucks in an instant surrounded this regiment, and made their way quite up to his majesty. They killed two aides de camp who fought near his person; the king's horse was slain under him, and as one of his equerries was presenting him another, both the equerry and horse were shot dead upon the spot.

Charles fought on foot, encircled by some of his officers, who immediately flew to relieve him by surrounding him. Several of them were taken, wounded or slain, or carried off to a distance from the king by the multitude that fell upon them, so that only five men were left about him. He was quite spent with fatigue, having killed above a dozen of the enemy with his own hand, without receiving so much as one wound, by that inexpressible good fortune, which, till then, had ever attended him, and upon which he still relied. At last Colonel Dardoff forced his way through the Calmucks, with a single company of his regiment, and came time enough to disengage the king. The rest of the Swedes put the Tartars to the sword, the army recovered its ranks, Charles mounted his

horse, and fatigued as he was, pursued the Moscovites for several miles.

The king was still in the great road from Smolensko (near to which this great battle was fought) to Moscow, which is about three hundred miles distant, and the roads in themselves not worse than those through which the Swedes had already passed; but they had information, that the czar had not only made all these roads impassable, either by laying such parts of them under water as lay near the marshes, or by digging very deep ditches at certain distances, or by covering the way with the wood of whole forests, which his soldiers had cut down; but also they learnt that he had set fire to all the villages, both on the right and left of the road.

The winter was now coming on, and there was little appearance of making any speedy advances into the country, and none of subsisting there; and as the whole body of Moscovite forces might unexpectedly fall upon the king of Sweden through bye-ways, which he was not acquainted with; Charles therefore made a review of his whole army, and by an account taken of their provisions, found that he had not enough to subsist them above fifteen days. General Lewenhaupt, who was appointed to bring him a supply, with a reinforcement of fifteen thousand men, was not come up; so he resolved to quit the road to Moscow, and turn to the south towards Ukraina, into the country of the Cossacks; whereupon the Swedish army was ordered to march towards that side of the country, to the great astonishment of all the officers.

Charles sent orders to Lewenhaupt to bring his troops and provision with all speed into Ukraina, where he designed to pass the winter; that having secured that country to himself, he might conquer Moscovy the next spring, and in the mean time he advanced towards the river Desna, which falls into the Boristhenes at Kiof. The obstacles they had hitherto encountered in their march, were trifles to those they met with in this new road. They were obliged to cross a forest full fifty leagues broad, which abounded in marshes. General Lapcom, who marched before with five thousand men and pioneers, led the army thirty leagues eastward out of the right way, and they had marched four days before the king discovered the mistake. They with difficulty gained the right road again, but left almost all their artillery and waggons behind, which were either stuck fast, or quite sunk in the mud. In this painful and laborious manner they marched for twelve days, till they had eat up the little biscuit that was left, and then they arrived, quite spent with hunger and weariness, upon the banks of the Desna, in the place where Mazeppa, general of the Cossacks, had appointed to meet them; but instead of that prince, they found, on the other side of the river, a body of Muscovites advancing towards them.

Charles was very much astonished, but resolved immediately to pass the Desna, and attack the enemy. The banks of the river were so steep, that they were obliged to let the soldiers down with cords; and they crossed it in the usual manner, some by swimming, and others by floats hastily made. The body of Moscovites, which arrived at the same time, were not above eight thousand men, so that they made but small resistance, and this obstacle was also surmounted. The king advanced farther into this wretched country, uncertain of his road, and Mazeppa's fidelity. Mazeppa appeared at last, but rather as a fugitive, than a powerful ally. The Muscovites had discovered and prevented his design of joining the Swedes: they had fallen upon the Cossacks, and cut off many of them; his principal friends were taken, and thirty of them had been broke upon the wheel. His towns were laid in ashes, his treasures plundered, the provisions he was preparing for the king of Sweden seized; and he was scarce able to escape himself with 6000 men, and some few horses loaded with gold and silver. However, he gave the king hopes of supporting him by his intelligence in this unknown country; and the Cossacks, enraged against the Muscovites, came in troops to the camp, and brought them provisions. Charles hoped also that general Lewenhaupt would have come and repaired this ill fortune. He was to bring with him fifteen thousand Swedes, (more valuable than one hundred thousand Cossacks) with provisions and ammunition; and he arrived at last, but almost in the same condition as Mazeppa had done.

General Lewenhaupt had passed the Boristhenes above Mohilou, and advanced twenty leagues farther on the road to Ukraina, with eight thousand waggons, and the money he had raised in Lithuania; but as he was upon his march near the place where the rivers Pronia and Sossia join and fall into the Boristhenes, the czar appeared at the

head of fifty thousand men. The Swedish commander, who had not quite sixteen thousand men, resolved not to intrench. Their many victories had inspired the Swedes with so much confidence, that they never enquired after the number of the enemy, but only where they lay. Lewenhaupt therefore marched against them without hesitation, on the 7th of October, 1708, in the afternoon. Upon the first onset, they killed fifteen hundred Muscovites. The czar's army fell into confusion, and fled on all sides, and the emperor of Russia was upon the point of seeing himself entirely defeated. He perceived that the safety of his dominions depended upon the action of that day, and that he was utterly undone, if Lewenhaupt joined the king of Sweden with a victorious army. As soon as he saw his troops begin to fall back, he ran to the rear guard where the Cossacks and Calmucks were posted: "I charge you (says he) to fire upon every man that runs away, and even to kill me, if I should be so cowardly as to turn my back." From thence he returned to the van guard, rallied his troops in person, assisted by Prince Menzikoff and Prince Gallicin. Lewenhaupt, who had pressing orders to join his master, chose rather to continue his march, than renew the fight, thinking he had done enough to discourage the enemy from harassing him in his way. The czar, at eleven the next morning, attacked him at the entrance of a morass, and drew out his army at length, that he might surround him. The Swedes faced about, and the fight lasted two hours with equal resolution. The Muscovites lost three times as many men as the Swedes; but still kept their ground. At four in the afternoon, general Bayer brought the czar a supply of troops: The battle was then renewed for the third time, with more fury than ever, and lasted till night came on: at last numbers carried it. The Swedes were broke, routed, and driven as far as to their baggage: Lewenhaupt rallied his troops behind his waggons, and though the Swedes were conquered, they did not fly; they were about nine thousand, and not a man of them ran away; and the general drew them up as easily in order, as though they had never been beaten. The czar, on the other side, passed the night under arms, and commanded his officers under pain of being cashiered, and his soldiers under pain of death, not to stir for plunder.

The next morning at day break, he ordered a fresh assault; Lewenhaupt having retired to an advantageous ground at some miles distance, after having nailed down part of his cannon, and set fire to his waggons. But the Muscovites coming time enough to hinder the whole convoy from being consumed in the flames; they seized upon six thousand waggons, which they saved. The czar, who was desirous of completing the defeat of the Swedes, sent General Flug to fall upon them again, the fifth time; and the general offered them an honourable capitulation. Lewenhaupt refused it, and the fifth battle was as bloody as any of the former: Of the nine thousand soldiers he had left he lost one half, and the other remained unbroken. At last, night coming on, Lewenhaupt, after having sustained five battles against fifty thousand men, swam over the Sossia, followed by the five thousand men, he had left alive, and the wounded were carried over on floats. The czar lost about twenty thousand Muscovites in these five engagements, in which he had the glory of conquering the Swedes, and Lewenhaupt the reputation of disputing the victory for three days, and of retreating without being broken at last. He then came to his master's camp with the honour of having made so good a defence, but brought with him neither ammunition nor army. King Stanislaus would have been glad to have joined Charles at the same time; but the Muscovites, who had defeated Lewenhaupt, lay in his way. The king of Sweden thus found himself without provisions or communication with Poland, surrounded with enemies, in the midst of a country where he had scarce any refuge but his courage.

The memorable winter of 1708, which was still more terrible in those frontiers of Europe, than it was in France, carried off part of his army. Charles resolved to brave the seasons, as he had done his enemies, and ventured to make long marches with his troops during the excessive severity of the weather. It was in one of those marches, that two thousand of his men were starved to death, almost before his eyes: The horsemen had no boots, and the foot had no shoes, and almost without cloaths: they were forced to make stockings of the skins of beasts in the best manner they could: they often wanted bread: they were obliged to throw the best part of their cannon into quagmires and rivers, for want of horses to draw them. So that this once flourishing army was reduced to twenty-four thousand men, ready to perish with hunger. They neither received news from Sweden,

den, nor were they able to send thither. In this condition, one single officer complained: how, says the king, are you uneasy, that you are so far from your wife? if you are a soldier indeed, I will carry you to that distance, that you shall scarce hear from Sweden once in three years. A soldier grumbling, ventured to present him, in the presence of the whole army, with a piece of bread that was black and mouldy, made of barley and oats, the only food they then had; nor had enough of this. The king received the piece of bread without the least emotion, ate it up entirely, and then said coldly to the soldier, "It is not good, but it may be eaten." This little turn (if any thing may be called little that serves to increase respect and confidence) contributed more than all the rest to support the Swedish army under those extremities, which under any other general would have been intolerable.

The czarish monarch, who was as active as the king of Sweden, after having sent fresh forces into Poland, to the assistance of the confederates united under general Smianski against Stanislaus, advanced very soon into Ukrania, in the midst of this severe winter, to oppose the king of Sweden. He continued there with a view of weakening the enemy by small engagements; for by this means he thought the Swedish army must be ruined entirely at last, as it could not be recruited whilst he was able to draw fresh forces continually out of his own dominions. The cold there must have been excessive indeed, since it obliged the two enemies to agree upon a suspension of arms.

On the first of February, they began to engage again, in the midst of ice and snow; after several small skirmishes, and some disadvantages, the king's army was reduced in April, to eighteen thousand Swedes. Mazeppa alone, the prince of the Cossacks, supplied them with the necessaries of life: without his assistance, the army must have perished by hunger and hardships. The czar, in this conjuncture offered conditions to Mazeppa, to draw him again into his service. But the Cossack continued faithful to his new ally, whether it were through fear of the terrible punishment of the wheels by which he had lost his friends, or whether through a desire of revenge.

Charles, with his eight thousand Swedes and as many Cossacks, had not laid aside the design or hopes of penetrating as far as Moscow. Towards the end of May he went to lay siege to Pultowa, upon the river Vorkslat, on the borders of Ukrania, about thirteen long leagues east of the Boristhenes, where the czar had a magazine. If the king took it, the road to Moscow would then be open to him; and in the abundance he should then possess, he could at least wait for the coming up of the succours he still expected from Sweden, Livonia, Pomerania, and Poland. His sole refuge, then, being in the conquest of Pultowa, he carried on the siege with vigour. Mazeppa who had a correspondence in the town, assured him, he would soon be master of it; and hope began to revive in his army. His soldiers looked upon the taking of Pultowa as the end of all their miseries. The king perceived, from the beginning of the siege, that he had taught his enemies the art of war. Prince Menzikoff, notwithstanding all his precautions, threw fresh troops into the town; and the garrison by this means, amounted to almost ten thousand men. The king continued the siege with still more warmth: he carried the advanced works, gave two assaults to the body of the place, and took the courtine.

The siege was in this condition, when the king, having rode into the river, to take a nearer view of some works, received a shot from a carbine, which pierced through his boot, and shattered a bone of his heel. There was not the least alteration observed in his countenance, by which it could be suspected that he was wounded; he continued calmly to give orders, and remained near six hours on horseback afterwards. One of his domestics, at last, perceiving that the sole of his boot was bloody, made haste to call the surgeons; and his pain then began to be so sharp, that they were forced to take him off his horse, and carry him to his tent. The surgeons, looking upon the wound, observed, that it already began to mortify, and were of opinion that the leg must be cut off. The army was in the utmost consternation; but one of the surgeons, named Newman, who was better skilled, and more courageous than the rest, was positive, that, by making deep incisions, he could save the king's leg. "Fall to work, then, presently, said the king; cut boldly, fear nothing." He held the leg himself with both his hands, looking upon the incisions that were made, as though the operation had been performed upon another person. As they were laying on the dressing, he gave orders for an assault the next morning; but the orders were scarce given, before word was brought

him, that the czar appeared with an army of above seventy thousand men: he was, therefore, obliged to take another resolution. Charles, wounded and incapable of acting, saw himself inclosed between the Boristhenes, and the river which runs to Pultowa, in a desert country, without any places of security, or ammunition, and exposed to an army, which had prevented him either from retreating, or being supplied with provisions. In this extremity he assembled no council of war, as might have been expected; but, on the 7th of July, at night, he sent for marshal Renchild into his tent, and ordered him without deliberation, and without uneasiness, to prepare to attack the czar the next morning. Renchild did not dispute his master's will, but went out with a resolution to obey him. At the door of the king's tent, he met count Piper, with whom he had long been at variance, as it often happens between the minister and the general. Piper asked him if any thing new had happened? no, says the general, coldly, and passed on to give his orders. As soon as Piper was entered into the tent, "has Renchild said any thing to you?" says the king to him. "Nothing," answers Piper. "Well then, replies the king, I tell you, that to-morrow we shall give battle." Count Piper was astonished at so desperate a resolution; but knew well, that his master could not be prevailed on to change his opinion; he only expressed his astonishment by his silence, and left the king to sleep till break of day.

On the 8th of July 1709, the decisive battle of Pultowa, was fought between the two most celebrated monarchs then in the world: Charles XII. illustrious by a course of nine years victories, and Peter Alexowitz, by nine years of fatigues spent in training up his troops to an equality with the Swedes: the one glorious for having given away others dominions, the other for having civilized his own; Charles in love with danger, and fighting only for glory; Alexowitz not flying from danger, and making war only for interest: the Swedish monarch liberal through a greatness of soul, and the Moscovite never generous but for some private end: the one sober and continent beyond example, naturally brave, and never cruel but once; the other, having not yet worn off the roughness of his education, or the brutality of his country, as terrible to his subjects, as wonderful to strangers, and much addicted to excess of pleasures that shortened his days. Charles had the title of invincible, which one unhappy moment robbed him of; but the nations around had already given Peter Alexowitz the name of Great, of which no defeat could deprive him, as no victories gave it to him.

In order to have a clear idea of this battle, and the place where it was fought, we must imagine Pultowa lying on the north, the camp of the king of Sweden on the south, drawing a little towards the east, and his baggage about a mile behind him; and the river of Pultowa on the north of the town, running from east to west.

The czar had passed the river about a league from Pultowa towards the west, and was beginning to form his camp. At day-break, the Swedes appeared out of their trenches with four cannon, being their whole artillery; the rest were left in the camp with about three thousand men; and four thousand remaining with the baggage. So that the Swedish army, which marched against the enemy, consisted of about twenty-five thousand men, whereof there were not above twelve thousand regular troops.

The Swedish generals Renchild, Field, Lewenhaupt, Slippenback, Hoorn, Sparre, Hamilton, the prince of Wirtemberg, who was related to the king, and some others, most of whom had seen the battle of Narva; put the subaltern officers in mind of that day, when eight thousand Swedes had destroyed an army of an hundred thousand Russians in their intrenchments: the officers said the same thing to the soldiers, and all encouraged one another as they marched. The king conducted the march, carried in a litter, at the head of his foot. A party of horse advanced by his order to attack that of the enemy: the battle began with this engagement at half an hour after four in the morning. The enemy's horse lay westward on the right of the Russian camp, prince Menzikoff and count Gallowin had placed them at distances between redoubts fortified with cannon. General Slippenback, at the head of the Swedes, fell upon them. All who had served in the Swedish troops knew that it was almost impossible to resist the fury of their first shock. The Moscovite squadrons were broken and routed; the czar himself began to rally them, and his hat was shot through with a musket ball; Menzikoff had three horses killed under him, and the Swedes cried out victory.

Charles did not doubt but the battle was gained; he had

had dispatched general Creuts, about midnight, with five thousand horse or dragoons, who were to take the enemy in flank, whilst he attacked them in front; but his misfortune was, that Creuts lost his way, and did not appear. The czar, who began to despair, by this accident had time to rally his horse, and fell upon the king's cavalry in his turn, which not being supported by Creuts's detachment, was broken, and Slippenback taken prisoner in the engagement: at the same time seventy-two cannons from the camp played upon the Swedish horse, and the Russian foot advanced to attack the Swedish infantry. The czar, by a presence of mind and a penetration, which in such moments belongs only to men that are truly great, immediately detached prince Menzikoff to post himself between Pultowa and the Swedes. Prince Menzikoff executed his master's orders with dexterity and readiness, and not only cut off all communication between the Swedish army and the troops remaining in the camp before Pultowa, but meeting with a corps de reserve of three thousand, he surrounded and put them to the sword.

The Muscovite foot, in the mean time, came out of their lines, and advanced in order into the plain. On the other side, the Swedish horse rallied within a quarter of a league from the enemy's army; and the king, assisted by general Renchild made a disposition for a general engagement. He ranged what troops were left him in two lines; his foot were posted in the center, and his horse made up the two wings. The czar disposed his army in the same manner, he had the advantage of numbers, and of seventy-two cannon; whilst the Swedes had no more than four, and began to want powder. The emperor of Russia was in the centre of the army, having then the title only of major-general, and seemed to serve under general Czeremetoff: but he went as emperor from rank to rank, mounted on a Turkish horse, which was a present from the Grand Signior, exhorting the officers and soldiers, and promising every one of them rewards.

Charles did all he could to sit his horse, at the head of his troops; but finding the posture too painful, he returned to his litter, holding his sword in one hand, and a pistol in the other. At nine in the morning, the battle was renewed: one of the first discharges of the Moscovite cannon carried off the two horses of the king's litter; he caused two others to be put to it, and a second volley broke the litter in pieces, and overturned the king. The troops which fought near him, believed him killed. The Swedes in a consternation lost ground, and their powder failing, and the enemy's cannon continuing to play upon them, the first line fell upon the second, and the second fled. In this last action, the Swedish army was routed by a single line of ten thousand men of the Moscovite foot; so much were matters changed. The king carried upon pikes by four grenadiers, covered with blood, and all over bruised by his fall, and scarce able to speak, cried out, Swedes, Swedes! Anger and grief renewing his strength he tried to rally some of his regiments: but the Muscovites closely pursued them with their swords, bayonets and pikes. The prince of Wirtemberg, general Renchild, Hamilton, and Stakelberg, were already taken prisoners, the camp before Pultowa forced, and all in confusion, which did not admit of any remedy. Count Piper, with all the officers of the chancery, had quitted the camp, and neither knew what to do, or what was become of the king. They ran from one side of the plain to the other; major Bere offered to lead them to the baggage; but the clouds of dust and smoke, which covered the field, and their own confusion, carried them strait to the counterscarp of the town, where they were all taken prisoners by the garrison. The king would not fly, and could not defend himself; general Poniatosky chanced to be by him that instant: he was a colonel of the Swedish guards of king Stanislaus, and a person of uncommon merit, whom his attachment to the person of Charles had engaged to follow him into Ukraina without any post in the army. He was one, who in all the occurrences of his life, and in dangers, where others at most would have only behaved with courage, shewed a command of understanding which was ever attended with success. He made a sign to a young Swede, named Frederick, the king's first valet de chambre, and as intrepid as his master; they took the king under their arms, and, assisted by a Drabant who came up to them, mounted him on a horse, notwithstanding the excessive pains of his wound: Frederick got up behind his master, and supported him from time to time. Poniatosky, though he had no command in the army, being made a general on this occasion by necessity, drew up five hundred horse near the king's

person, some of them Drabants, others officers, and others private troopers. This body, re-animated by the misfortune of their prince, made their way through more than ten regiments of Moscovites, and conducted Charles through the midst of the enemy, the space of a league, to the baggage of the Swedish army.

This surprising retreat was of great consequence in such distress; but the king was under a necessity of flying still farther. They found amongst the baggage Count Piper's coach, for the king never had one since he left Stockholm. They put him into it, and made towards the Boristhenes with all possible speed. The king, who, from the time he was set on horseback, till he came to the baggage, had never spoke one single word, then asked what was become of count Piper? they told him he was taken with all the officers of the chancery: and general Renchild, and the prince of Wirtemberg? added the king. They are prisoners too, says Poniatosky. Prisoners to Moscovites! replies Charles, shrugging up his shoulders: come on then, rather let us go to the Turks! They did not observe, however, the least alteration in his countenance, and whoever had then seen him, and not known his condition, would have never suspected him to have been either conquered or wounded. Whilst he was getting off, the Moscovites seized upon his artillery in the camp before Pultowa, his baggage, and the money he had raised for carrying on the war, where they found six millions of specie, the spoils of Poland and Saxony. Near nine thousand Swedes were killed in the battle, about six thousand were taken, three thousand or four thousand ran away, and were never heard of afterwards.

There still remained near eighteen thousand men, comprehending the Cossacks with Swedes and Poles, who fled towards the Boristhenes, under the direction of general Lewenhaupt; he marched on one side with these fugitive troops, while the king took another road with some of his horse. The coach, in which he rode, broke down in his march, and they set him again on horseback; and to finish his misfortune, he rambled all night in a wood: there his courage not being able to supply any longer his exhausted spirits, and the pains of his wound becoming more insupportable by fatigue, and his horse falling under him through excessive weariness, he rested himself some hours at the foot of a tree, in danger of being surprized every moment by the conquerors, who sought for him on all sides. At last, on the 9th of July at night, he found himself upon the banks of the Boristhenes, and Lewenhaupt just arrived with the remains of his army. The Swedes saw their king again, whom they judged to have been dead, with a joy mixed with sorrow. The enemy drew nigh, and they had no bridge to pass the river, nor time to make one, nor powder to defend themselves against the enemy, who came upon them, nor provisions to hinder the army from perishing with hunger, who had eat nothing for a whole day; but what gave the Swedes the greatest uneasiness, was, the danger of their king. By good fortune, there was still left a sorry calash, which they had brought along with them, this they embarked in a little boat, and the king and general Mazeppa in another. The latter had saved several chests of money; but the current being very rapid, and a violent wind beginning to blow, the Cossack, to lighten his boat, threw more than three parts of his treasures into the river.

Count Poniatosky, who was now more than ever necessary to the king, for his remarkable presence of mind under difficulties, together with Mullern, the king's chancellor, crossed over in other barks with some of the officers; three hundred troopers of the king's guard, and a very great number of Poles and Cossacks, relying upon the goodness of their horses, ventured to pass the river by swimming; their troops, keeping close together, resisted the current, and broke the waves; but all who attempted to cross separately, a little below, were carried away by the stream, and sunk in the river. Of all the foot who tried to pass over, not one was able to reach the opposite shore.

During this extremity to which the routed part of the army were reduced, prince Menzikoff came up with ten thousand horse, having each a foot soldier behind him. The carcases of the Swedes that lay dead in the way, of the wounds, fatigue, and hunger, sufficiently pointed out to the prince the road which the body of the army had taken. The prince sent a trumpet to the Swedish general, to offer him a capitulation; four general officers, were presently sent by Lewenhaupt, to receive the law of the conqueror. Before that day, sixteen thousand of king Charles's soldiers would have attacked all the forces of the

Russian

Russian empire, and have perished to the last man, rather than have surrendered; but after a battle lost, and a flight of two days, not having their eyes any longer upon their prince, who was constrained to fly himself, the strength of every soldier being spent, and their courage no longer supported by any hope, the love of life took place of intrepidity. The whole army were made prisoners of war; some of the soldiers, rather than fall into the hands of the Muscovites, threw themselves into the Boristhenes, and the rest were made prisoners. They all filed off in the presence of prince Menzikoff, laying their arms at his feet, as thirty thousand Muscovites had done nine years before, at the king of Sweden's at Narva; but whereas the king then sent back almost all the Muscovite prisoners but the general officers; the czar retained all the Swedes that were taken at Pultowa, and sent them into Siberia. We shall relate, in the history of Sweden, the king's escape to Bender, and his conduct there, and afterwards.

No sooner had the czar obtained the decisive victory of Pultowa, than Augustus re-ascended the throne of Poland, his rival Stanislaus and the Swedish forces retiring into the territories of Sweden. The czar at the same time restored the duke of Courland, whom he married to his niece, the princess Anne, daughter of the late czar John, his eldest brother, and completed the conquest of Livonia; he also made himself master of Wiburg, and the territory of Kexholm in Finland. The czar, however, still quartered great part of his army in Poland, though the diet insisted on his withdrawing them, complaining that their country had been ravaged and plundered twelve years by foreign troops already, and desired that they might enjoy some rest after so many calamities: that the Swedes were now reduced so low, that the Poles wanted no foreign assistance, and they could not understand what the czar intended by quartering his troops still in Poland, unless he had a design upon their liberties: but they were for a time relieved from the outrages committed by the Russian forces, by a rupture between the Russians and the Turks: the king of Sweden having prevailed on the grand seignior to declare war against Russia, the pretence for which was, that the Russians had pursued the Swedes into the Turkish territories, and made prisoners of many of them there.

The czar did not wait to be invaded by the Turks, but marched into Moldavia, being assured by a Tartarian prince, that the Moldavians and Tartars would join his army with a good body of troops on his appearance among them. He marched into Moldavia, therefore, before he had provided sufficient magazines for the subsistence of his troops, relying on the Moldavians to furnish him with provisions; but whether the treaty between the czar and the Moldavians had been discovered by the Porte, or by what other accident it happened, the Moldavians did not join him as he expected. The Russian army was destitute of provisions, and being surrounded by the numerous forces of the Turks, was attacked three days successively on the banks of the river Pruth, viz. on the 11th, 12th, and 13th days of July. The Russians, though they defended themselves very well, yet being destitute of all provisions and necessaries, it was thought proper to hang out a white flag, and demand a treaty with the vizir, who commanded the Turks, which he was not averse to, if he could procure advantageous terms; and having sufficiently tried the resolution of the Russians, whom he looked upon as desperate men, he consented to parly with them.

The ministers on both sides, being met, the Turks insisted that the czar should deliver up Asoph, and all his forts on the Black Sea, and renounce all pretences to the navigation of it, which the czar consented to; and thereby his favourite project of building a fleet of men of war at Woronets, to sail on that sea, and trade with the countries on the coast of the Euxine Sea, and perhaps dispute the dominion of it with the grand seignior, proved abortive. But even upon these hard terms, it is presumed the vizir, who knew the Russian army to be in a starving condition, would not have suffered them to retire to their own country, if the czarina Catharine had not borrowed of the officers all the money they could raise, and made a present of it to the covetous vizir; whereupon the Russians were permitted to march off unmolested, and were supplied with provisions even by the Turks themselves; but their numbers were so diminished by sickness or the sword, that of seventy thousand men, which entered Moldavia, scarce forty thousand remained alive.

The king of Sweden arrived just as the Russians were marching off, reproached the vizir with betraying his master, and offered with twenty thousand men to attack the Russians, and carry the czar prisoner to the grand

seignior; but the vizir refused to violate the treaty he had made, and the czar returned to his dominions, quartering a body of his forces in Poland again, which the Poles protested against, desiring he would withdraw them; but either under pretence of money due to him for his protection against the Swedes, or some other demands he had on the republic, the Russians continued in Poland several years, where they raised what contributions they saw fit; and the war still continuing between the Swedes and Russians, the czar with his ally the Dane, subdued the Swedish Pomerania, in 1713. The year following, he defeated the Swedish fleet in the gulf of Finland, afterwards made himself master of almost the whole province of Finland, and proceeded to invade the provinces of Sweden on the west side of the Bothnick gulf, where he demolished some of their iron and copper works, in which the galleys he had built were of great service to him; this being a shallow sea, in which he met with little opposition, as large ships of war could not enter it; but the king of Sweden returning from Turkey, put a stop to his incursions on that side; and as he had now no other enemy, he applied himself again to the polishing of his subjects, and promoting arts and sciences; but navigation and traffic more particularly engaged his attention.

He made another journey to Holland, in 1717, not incognito, as before, but as a sovereign prince, and was received with all the honours due to his rank. From thence he visited France, and made himself acquainted with every thing he thought worth his attention: but his principal view being to improve his own people, he engaged the artists in all professions in his service, and, by the salaries and rewards he offered them, prevailed with many of them to go with him to Russia. Nor did he only introduce arts and sciences among his people, but imitated the politest nations in their diversions at his return.

Before his arrival at Petersburg, he received advice, that a conspiracy had been formed to depose him, and set his only son the czarowitz upon the throne; to which that prince, it is said, was privy. A great many of the conspirators were put to death on the czar's return; and the czarowitz fled to the court of Vienna, to avoid his father's resentment: and as his consort was sister to the then empress of Germany, it was given out that the court of Vienna had obtained his pardon; but, however that might be, when the czarowitz returned to Russia, he was apprehended and imprisoned; and, being tried by a court of officers of his father's appointing, condemned to die: however, the sentence was not executed, the prince dying a natural death in prison.

The king of Sweden being now returned to his dominions, and invading the Danish territories; the czar, to make a diversion in favour of his old ally the Dane, was preparing to invade Sweden again; when he heard that king Charles was killed in the trenches before Frederickshall in Norway; and that his youngest sister, the princess Ulrica Eleonora, had succeeded him in that throne; who, desiring to live at peace with the czar, a treaty was set on foot in the island of Aland, in 1718, between the two nations, which being abruptly broken off, the czar invaded Sweden again the year following, and destroyed some of their most considerable copper and iron works, which obliged the Swedes, in 1721, to submit to the terms he offered them; namely, that the Swedes should confirm to him the provinces of Livonia, Ingria, and Carelia, and the eastern provinces of Finland. The czar assumed the title of emperor of all the Russias, in the above year.

In the year 1722, the Persians being engaged in a civil war, and having lately deposed Sultan Hossein, their sovereign; the czar assembled an army of thirty thousand men at Astracan, and invaded the provinces on the west of the Caspian sea; having published a manifesto, declaring, that it was not any ambitious views of enlarging his dominions, that brought him to the frontiers of Persia; but to rescue their king out of the hands of his rebellious subjects; and being arrived with his army near Derbent, a difficult pass on the coast of the Caspian sea, and esteemed the gate of Persia from Russia, the governor and inhabitants agreed to surrender that city to the czar upon the first summons; whereupon the czar having confirmed the governor in that office, and left a garrison of two thousand men in that citadel, returned to Astracan, without any farther attempt at that time.

In the year 1723, however, the Russians assembled an army near Derbent, and the whole province of Ghilan submitted to them as soon as they took the field; and soon after the Russian troops marched into the province of Shirwan,

Shirwan, and took the port-town of Baku: prince Thomas, son of the late sultan Hossien, having made his escape from the usurpers at Ispahan, and assembled some forces in the north of Persia, sent a minister to Petersburg, to desire the czar's protection; and a treaty was concluded on the 23d of September 1723, wherein the czar promised his assistance to prince Thomas against the rebels; and the prince, on the other hand, ceded the provinces of Ghilan, Shirwan, Mazenderan, and Astrabad, to Russia. There was soon after a treaty concluded between the Turks and Russians, guaranteeing to each other the several provinces they had possessed themselves of on the frontiers of Persia: in which they declared, that if prince Thomas, should refuse his consent to this treaty, they would keep them by force, but yield up the rest of the kingdom to prince Thomas, or any other prince, who should be deemed heir to the throne of Persia, and afford their assistance against the usurper.

The czar, in the mean time, caused the czarina to be proclaimed his successor, and crowned; and the nobility and officers of state took the oaths of allegiance to her: soon after which he fell sick, and died on the 8th of February, 1724-5, in the fifty-third year of his age. Whereupon the senate proclaimed the czarina Catherine, empress of all the Russias, and renewed their oaths of allegiance to her, who was about forty years of age, at her accession to the throne.

The czarina applied herself immediately to perfect what the late czar had begun: encouraging all arts and sciences, and inviting learned foreigners and artificers, by offering them large revenues, to settle in the Russian dominions; and obliged her subjects to send their sons and dependents abroad, to qualify themselves in every science. We had, and have still, several of them in England; but wherever they travel, the court of Russia takes an account of them; they are all registered, and never remove from one kingdom to another for improvement, without the leave of the Russian minister, who resides in the kingdom to which they are destined, and return home whenever they are commanded.

Catherine applying herself to the increasing and disciplining her forces both by sea and land, at the beginning of her reign, gave the king of Denmark some apprehensions, that these preparations were intended against his kingdom, as he had lately seized upon the territories of the duke of Holstein, her son-in-law, which lie in Sleswick; whereupon that prince applied himself to the British court, to send a squadron of men of war to his assistance; and a fleet was accordingly, in 1726, sent into the Baltick, under the command of Sir Charles Wager, and a letter sent to the czarina at the same time, to justify this measure, wherein his late majesty observes, That the warlike preparations she was making both by sea and land, had alarmed him and his allies, and that he had sent his fleet into the Baltick, to obviate the dangers which might arise from such an extraordinary armament, especially as he was informed, that measures were taking at the Russian court, in favour of the pretender to his crown. He had given orders, therefore, to his admiral, to prevent her imperial majesty's fleet from coming out. The czarina, in her answer to this letter, declared, that she had never entertained a thought of disturbing the British nation, by espousing the interest of the pretender; and was so far from having any hostile intentions against Britain, that she had ordered her port-towns in Livonia to furnish the British fleet with all manner of provisions.

The British fleet had undoubtedly other reasons for visiting the Baltic, than the preventing the Russian invasion of England in favour of the pretender. If they had intended it, so weak a naval power, and so distant from our shores, as Russia lies, could never have expected any success in such an enterprize: nor can it be imagined, what motives they should have to attempt it, while our traffic with them was more beneficial to them, than that of any other nation: the true reason, therefore, of sending the British fleet to the Baltick, is supposed to have been to protect the Danes and Swedes. The Danes had sold Bremen and Ferden to Hanover, and Britain had guaranteed their possession of Sleswick, the property of the duke of Holstein; and the Swedes, in their distress, offered to confirm Bremen and Ferden to Hanover, on condition, that the English fleet protected the rest of the Swedish dominions; which were substantial reasons for sending Sir Charles Wager into the Baltick, but not proper to be owned at that time; and, therefore, some other plausible pretence for it was to be given out, and nothing could be more popular than defending the nation against the pretender.

The Russians making great preparations by sea for some expedition the next year, 1727, another British fleet was sent into the Baltick, commanded by Sir John Norris; but the czarina falling sick, no attempt was made either on the Danish or Swedish coasts, and our fleet returned to England. The czarina, apprehending she should not live long, appointed prince Peter, the son of the czarowitz, and grandson of the emperor, Peter the Great, to succeed her, and died on the 17th of May 1727, in the forty-third year of her age. Peter II. at his accession, was in the twelfth year of his age, being born on the 22d of October 1715. He was immediately proclaimed emperor on the death of the late empress; in which proclamation it was shewn, that he had a right to the Russian throne by hereditary descent, as well as by the appointment of the late emperor and empress. The mother of the young emperor was the princess Charlotta Christiana Sophia, of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, sister to the consort of the late emperor, Charles VI. It was by the particular direction of Peter the Great, that the late czarina appointed Peter to succeed her, for otherwise she would have transferred the empire to one of the princesses her daughters, of whom she left two, namely, Anna Petrowna, then nineteen years of age, married to Charles Frederick, duke of Holstein Gottorp, and Elizabeth Petrowna, only thirteen years of age.

The young emperor was almost prevailed on to espouse the eldest daughter of prince Menzikoff, who was prime minister of Russia at the death of the empress. The nobility of Russia were so incensed at this, that they immediately resolved on ruining him, and caused him to be brought to trial, wherein he was charged with being the cause of the death of the czarowitz, his imperial majesty's father; with causing the first consort of Peter the Great to be continued in prison, and with embezzling the public revenues; with causing several great men to be deprived of their honours and estates, and with a boundless ambition, as appeared in his design of marrying his daughter to the emperor; for all which, his estate was ordered to be confiscated, and himself sentenced to be banished to Siberia.

The young emperor's relations next proceeded to give the late czarina, the first consort of Peter the Great, her liberty, and reverse the sentence of her divorce. They also repealed that law made by Peter the Great, which subverted the right of primogeniture, and the natural order of succession in the imperial family, and the rest of the Russian families, and made void the process against the late czarowitz, the present emperor's father, and restored the noblemen who had been banished to Siberia, under the administration of prince Menzikoff: and having concluded a peace both with Sweden and Denmark, they proceeded, on the 7th of March, 1727-8, to the coronation of the czar at Moscow.

The post of prime minister was conferred on prince Dolgoruki, who appeared to have no less ambition than his predecessor, contriving to get his eldest daughter espoused to the present emperor, and was congratulated thereupon, and their nuptials appointed to be celebrated; but the czar died of the small-pox, on the 29th of January 1729-30, three days before the marriage was to have been solemnized; whereupon the senate and great officers of the crown caused the princess Anne, duchess dowager of Courland, to be proclaimed empress. She was the second daughter of the late czar John, eldest brother of Peter the Great; Charles, duke of Mecklenburg, having married Catharine her eldest sister.

As the court resided at Moscow on the death of the czar, prince Dolgoruki and three others, were therefore appointed to attend the empress Anne, and convoy her to Moscow. These gentlemen arriving at Mittau, the capital of Courland, congratulated her succession; but insisted on limiting the prerogatives of the crown, and vesting part of the legislative authority in the states, which she consented to, and signed the capitulation they had provided for her, the principal articles whereof were, that she should not make peace or war, or raise taxes, without the concurrence of the states; that she should not marry, appoint a successor, or dispose of any considerable office without a like assent. But the czarina appeared to have so many friends on her arrival at Moscow, that the nobility and great officers attended her with an address, declaring, that monarchical government was most agreeable to the Russians, desiring that her imperial majesty would accept of the sovereignty entire, and with the same authority it was enjoyed by her predecessors; and the articles she had signed at Mittau were thereupon cancelled, and both the clergy and laity took the oaths to her majesty in as absolute terms as they had done to Peter

Peter the Great, without any reserves or limitations whatever.

The prince Dolgoruki, his son, and several of their relations and friends, were soon after banished, and their estates confiscated, being principally concerned, it is supposed, in putting limitations on the prerogative, as mentioned above; but the declaration published on this occasion charged Dolgoruki and his son with behaving insolently to the late czar Peter II. and endeavouring to marry him to Dolgoruki's daughter, and with embezzling the public treasure.

The death of Augustus II. king of Poland, happening in February 1733, N. S. the empress of Russia, and the emperor of Germany, by their joint interest, caused the elector of Saxony, his son, to be advanced to the throne of Poland, though Stanislaus, father-in-law to the French king, became a candidate for that crown, and was supported by all the power of France; at which Lewis was so incensed, that entering into a confederacy with Spain and Sardinia, he invaded the German emperor's dominions both in Italy and Germany, expelled the Austrians from all their Italian dominions, and took Philipsburg upon the Rhine, though the czarina sent thirty thousand of her troops as far as the Rhine, in 1735, to the assistance of the Germans; but a peace being concluded, the dominions of the Austrians were restored, both in Germany and Italy, except Naples and Sicily, which were yielded to Don Carlos, the king of Spain's eldest son by the princess of Parma.

This war with France and Spain was no sooner ended, but a rupture happened with the Turks in 1736, in which the Russians and Austrians were confederates, and the Russians were very successful the two first campaigns on their side, over-running both Crim and Little Tartary; but the Austrian army being almost destroyed by a pestilential fever, the emperor made a separate peace, and the Russians were obliged to relinquish all the places they had taken in this war.

Nadir Shah, or Kouli Khan, as he is usually called, becoming very powerful, and recovering all the places the Turks had taken on the frontiers of Persia, the czarina, without waiting to be attacked, in the year 1738, resigned all the provinces Peter the Great had possessed himself of in Persia, on the west of the Caspian sea.

On the twenty-eighth of October, 1740, the empress Anne died, having nominated for her successor prince John, an infant, six months old, son of Anthony Ulrick, duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, and of Anne his wife, daughter of Charles duke of Mecklenburg, and of the princess Catherine, eldest daughter of the late czar John: and during the minority of the infant emperor, she appointed her favourite, count Biron, duke of Courland, to be regent. The mother of the young emperor, the princess Anne of Mecklenburg, looking upon herself much better entitled to the regency, and even to the throne itself, as her son could not have the least title to the Russian throne but by her, she ordered count Munich to take the duke of Courland prisoner, and, causing him to be tried for high treason, he was condemned to die; but his sentence was afterwards changed to a Siberian banishment, and she assumed the regency herself; in which change at court the general count Munich, being most instrumental, was mightily caressed by the princess at first; but she soon removed him from all his posts, for what reason does not appear, though it is probable the regent might imagine he assumed too great a share in the administration; however, the displacing this great man contributed, no doubt, to her own ruin.

While the soldiers were under the command of the count, the princess Anne had not much to fear from them; but he was no sooner displaced, than they began to cabal in favour of the princess Elizabeth, the youngest daughter of Peter the Great, by his last consort the empress Catherine; and on the fifth of December, 1741, all the avenues to the palace, and the chief posts in the city, were seized by the guards, who, with the friends of the princess, assembling in the palace, proclaimed her empress of Russia. The late regent and her consort, the duke of Brunswick, and their infant son were made prisoners, as were also count Munich, and Osterman the chancellor. The Dolgoruki's, the duke of Courland, and other state prisoners, were recalled from Siberia, and their sentences revoked. In the mean time count Osterman, Munich, and several more, that were thought not well affected to the present government, were tried for high treason, and condemned to die; but when they had been brought to the scaffold, and prepared for their execution,

it was declared, that the reigning empress had given orders for them to be banished.

At first, it had been resolved, that the late regent, the princess Anne, should be sent with her consort and her son to Germany; but upon second thoughts it was judged more politic to keep the royal family in their power, to prevent rivals attempting any change in the government; and though they were on their journey to Germany, they were ordered to be stopped and detained prisoners at Riga; and when the Austrian and Prussian ministers interceded for their liberty, the czarina answered, that she had given directions that the family of the late regent should be treated agreeable to their rank, and she should convince the world of the regard she had for them, notwithstanding what had happened.

The czarina observed, that as the duke of Holstein, who was descended from her eldest sister, might be urged to insist on his right to the Russian throne, she invited him to reside in her court, adopted him her heir, and caused him to profess himself of the Greek church, without which he could not succeed to that empire; and thus her authority seemed pretty well established, as she had now in her power all the royal family that could make any pretensions to the Russian throne.

In the year 1742, the war with Sweden still continuing, general Lacy was sent to command the army in Finland, who, having blocked up the Swedish forces in Helsingfort, would grant them no better terms, than that they might embark for Sweden with part of their baggage, but that their artillery and magazines should be delivered up to the Russians; and in the course of that campaign the whole province of Finland was reduced under the dominion of Russia.

During these transactions, the Swedes, in hopes of obtaining better terms for the czarina, had made choice of her nephew, the duke of Holstein, to succeed to that crown; but he having professed himself of the Greek communion, had rendered himself incapable of it; for it is one of the fundamental laws of Sweden, that their sovereign must be of the Lutheran persuasion, and indeed the crown of Sweden was scarce worth the accepting, after the possessor became obliged to acknowledge the people for his sovereign, and was made entirely dependent on the state.

The czarina having, in the mean time, adopted the duke of Holstein her heir, caused him to be stiled grand duke of Russia, and married him to the princess Catherine Alexowna, the daughter of Christian Augustus, prince of Anhalt-Zerbst, to whom he has been married several years, and has yet had no issue; and as the empress of Russia herself is unmarried, it is very uncertain who will succeed to that throne, if the grand duke should die before her.

In pursuance of a treaty concluded between Russia and Sweden, the czarina insisted on retaining that part of Finland, which lies east of the river Kymen, and the lakes to the northward of it; but restored all the rest of Finland to the crown of Sweden, in which state it remains at this day; and by a treaty between his British majesty and the czarina, entered into the twelfth of June, 1747, her imperial majesty agreed, that during the war between Great Britain and France, in consideration of a subsidy to be paid her, she would keep on the frontiers of Livonia, next to Lithuania, a body of fifty thousand foot, and forty or fifty galleys upon the same coast, to act wherever his British majesty should require, and in such places as his majesty and his allies should think proper; which treaty was signed, Hyndford, C. R. Bestuchef, Woronzow; one hundred thousand pounds whereof were paid down at the ratification of the treaty. Sir Charles Hanbury Williams, the British minister at Dresden, thereupon demanding a passage for the Russian troops through Poland, in the beginning of the year 1748, his Polish majesty answered, that this did not depend on him; and as there was no diet sitting, he could determine nothing in relation to this affair. However the Russians began their march through Poland, in April, 1748, at which the French being alarmed, preliminary articles of peace were signed soon after, and a convention was entered into between Great Britain, France, and the States-general, with respect to those troops, of the following tenor:

"We, the underwritten ministers plenipotentiary of his Britannick majesty, his most Christian majesty, and the lords, the States-general of the United Provinces, at the conferences at Aix-la-Chapelle, have agreed, that in order the more speedily to restore a general pacification, and to give reciprocal proofs of the sincere desire their Britannick

tannick and most Christian majesties, and the lords the States-general have to execute the preliminaries of the thirtieth of April last; his Britannick majesty, and the States-general, immediately after the signature of the convention, shall send orders to the auxiliary corps of thirty-seven thousand Russians in pay, and actually in march through Germany towards the Low-countries, to return immediately towards Russia; and that the said corps of Russian troops shall return thither as soon as possibly they can, according to the conditions of the treaty concluded and signed at Petersburg, the nineteenth of November last, between his Britannick majesty and the States-general on the one side, and her Imperial majesty of all the Russias on the other; and that it shall not be permitted to the said Russian troops, upon any pretext, to march any further towards the Low-countries: and that his most Christian majesty, immediately after the signature of this convention, shall send into the interior parts of France, a like number of regular troops, now in the Low-countries, as well infantry as horse and dragoons, of which a list shall be given at the same time to the ministers plenipotentiary of his Britannick majesty, and the States-general at Aix-la-Chapelle; which troops, or a like number, his most Christian majesty shall reform in a month after he knows, in an authentic manner, of the actual departure of the said body of Russian troops towards Russia; and his said most Christian majesty shall communicate to his Britannick majesty and the States-general this reform within a month. His Britannick majesty and the States-general of the United Provinces engage, moreover, that the said auxiliaries shall not be employed in the service of any other power, while they are in their pay; and that in case they cannot return home to their own country before the first year for which they are engaged, and during which, according to treaty, they are still to remain in their pay and service; it is expressly stipulated, that they may not be employed under any pretext whatsoever, either against his most Christian majesty or his allies, after the reform above-mentioned is made and executed to the troops paid by his said most Christian majesty. In witness whereof, &c. Signed, Sandwich; St. Severin d'Arragon; W. Bentinck; F. H. Wassenauer; G. Hasselaer; W. Boffelle."

The Russian troops, in pursuance of this convention, were ordered to halt in Germany, and soon after to march back again into their own country: but it seems to have been a very great oversight on the part of the allies, that the Russians were not permitted to join the confederate army, and remain in the Netherlands, until the French had executed their part of the treaty; as nothing but downright force could ever induce that people to execute their treaties according to the true meaning of the articles; and we had tamely submitted to give hostages for the performance of our part, without insisting from them. This was certainly the most inglorious transaction that ever Britain could be upbraided with, and has no doubt placed her in a despicable point of view to her envious neighbours.

It may with some degree of probability be surmised, that many political, and some private reasons determined the princess Elizabeth to take part with the house of Austria, against the king of Prussia, in the year 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the war; and her conquests were such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was saved only by her critical death, January 5, 1762, when she was succeeded by Peter III. grand prince of Russia, and duke of Holstein Gottorp. This prince was a great admirer of the king of Prussia, which was displeasing to his people in general; he had many disagreeable peculiarities, and, what was worst of all, aimed at innovation, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt. Hence a conspiracy was formed against him; so that he scarce knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life. He was succeeded by his wife, who has reigned many years by the title of Catherine II. The most remarkable domestic occurrence of her reign was, the death of prince Iwan, who lost his life in an ill-concerted conspiracy which had been entered into by some officers, in order to advance him to the throne; and the most public transactions were, the late war with the Ottoman Port, which the reader will find an account of in our history of Asiatic Turkey, p. 160, 161.

We cannot with propriety take leave of Russia, without inserting a recent and important transaction, which has originated from the present sovereign of this great empire; namely,

"Declaration from the empress of Russia to the courts of London, Versailles, and Madrid;" and which is expressed in the following terms:

"The empress of all the Russias has so fully manifested her sentiments of equity and moderation, and has given such evident proofs during the course of the war that she supported against the Ottoman Porte, of the liberty of universal commerce, as all Europe can witness. This conduct, as well as the principles of impartiality that she has displayed during the present war, justly inspire her with the fullest confidence, that her subjects would peaceably enjoy the fruits of their industry, and the advantages belonging to a neutral nation. Experience has nevertheless proved the contrary. Neither the above-mentioned considerations, nor the regard to the rights of nations, have prevented the subjects of her imperial majesty from being often molested in their navigation, and stopped in their operations by those of the belligerent powers.

"These hindrances to the liberty of trade in general, and to those of Russia in particular, are of a nature to excite the attention of all neutral nations. The empress finds herself obliged, therefore, to free it by all the means compatible with her dignity, and the well-being of her subjects; but, before she puts this into execution, and with a sincere intention to prevent any future infringements, she thought it but just to publish to all Europe the principles she means to follow, which are the properest to prevent any misunderstanding, or any occurrences that may occasion it. Her imperial majesty does it with the more confidence, as she finds those principles coincident with the primitive right of nations, which every people may reclaim, and which the belligerent powers cannot invalidate without violating the laws of neutrality, and without disavowing the maxims they have adopted in the different treaties and public engagements.

"They are reducible to the following points:

"First, That all neutral ships may freely navigate from port to port, and on the coasts of nations at war.

"Secondly, That the effects belonging to the subjects of the said warring powers shall be free in all neutral vessels, except contraband merchandize.

"Thirdly, That the empress, as to the specification of the above-mentioned merchandize, holds to what is mentioned in the tenth and eleventh articles of her treaty of commerce with Great Britain, extending her obligations to all the powers at war.

"Fourthly, That to determine what is meant by a blockading port, this is only to be understood of one which is so well kept in by the ships of the power that attacks it, and which keep their places, that it is dangerous to enter into it.

"Fifthly, That these principles serve as a rule for proceedings and judgments upon the legality of prizes.

"Her imperial majesty, in making these points public, does not hesitate to declare, that to maintain them, and to protect the honour of her flag, the security of the trade and navigation of her subjects, she has prepared the greatest part of her maritime forces. This measure will not, however, influence the strict neutrality she does observe, and will observe, so long as she is not provoked and forced to break the bounds of moderation and perfect impartiality. It will be only in this extremity that her fleet have orders to go wherever honour, interest, and need may require.

"In giving this solemn assurance with the usual openness of her character, the empress cannot do otherwise than promise herself that the belligerent powers, convinced of the sentiments of justice and equity which animate her, will contribute towards the accomplishment of these salutary purposes, which manifestly tend to the good of all nations, and to the advantages even of those at war. In consequence of which her imperial majesty will furnish her commanding officers with instructions conformable to the above-mentioned principles, founded upon the primitive laws of people, and so often adopted in their connections."

The courts of France, Spain, Portugal, the republic of Holland, and most of the naval powers in Europe have acceded to this treaty, and have, in consequence of it, established an armed neutrality for the protection to their trade against the interruptions that may be given to it on the high seas, by nations at war with each other. Thus it may be justly remarked, is the empire of Russia become the arbitress of the liberties of Europe in general.

S E C T. X.

Containing an Account of the several Colleges or Offices for the Government of RUSSIA; their Laws and Punishments, Revenues, Taxes, Orders of Knighthood, Land and Naval Forces, &c.

THE councils, offices, colleges, or chanceries, as established by Peter I. are as follow, viz. 1. The senate, or directing council, which has the management of all domestic affairs. 2. The holy synod, or ecclesiastical council. 3. The war college, and its subordinate offices. 4. The Admiralty college, which conducts and regulates all naval concerns; subject to which, are several inferior officers. 5. The college for foreign affairs. 6. The college of the treasury, which has the direction of levying all public revenues, except the poll-tax and the produce of the salt-works. 7. The state-office, which issues out the public money. 8. The reversion-office, which is a sort of check on the other colleges. 9. The salt-office. 10. The confiscation chancery, which directs the sale of forfeited estates, and levies fines. 11. The colleges for trades, mines, and manufactures, which are distinct offices. 12. The college of justice at Moscow, some of the members of which constitute a college at Peterburgh, for determining suits brought thither by appeal from the conquered provinces: it has likewise a consistorial jurisdiction over the protestants and papists in that city. At Moscow is also a feudal chancery, relative to estates of private persons. Here is also a college of the magistracy; and a privy-chancery, that takes cognisance of all hospitals, &c.

The Russian nobility formerly consisted of kneses, or princes and gentlemen; and bojar, or boyar, is not a title of nobility, but antiently denoted a post or office, as a privy counsellor, &c. Peter the Great added the titles of counts and barons to the former: but no birth or title, according to the wise regulations made by Peter I. gives a person rank, unless he merits it by his services and abilities; by which means many foreigners of mean extraction have risen to very great honours in Russia: for in regard to unlimited subjection to their sovereign, the nobility are on a level with the rest of the people. Even the greatest of them used formerly to glory in styling themselves the slaves of the czar, whenever they spoke or wrote to him; but Peter I. abolished this harsh term, and ordered them to use the word subject instead of it.

The peasants are, however, still perfect slaves, and absolutely subject to the arbitrary power of their lords, who may treat them as they please, provided they do not kill them; and are liable to be transferred, with all their goods, from one master to another. The government itself is in the last degree absolute; and, notwithstanding Peter's giving them the name of subjects, the people of all ranks may justly be termed slaves, as their lives and fortunes depend solely on the will of their sovereign. Even such as are employed in the state have their share of arbitrary power; for their proceedings being without appeal, and in the emperor's name, they frequently abuse their authority, in order to satisfy their avarice, revenge, or other guilty passions. For deciding cases between private men, they have precedents and written laws, particularly a code called Subornoe Uloshenie, an uniform and universal law, which Alexius Michaelowitz published in 1649, and has been enlarged by the edicts of the succeeding czars. The process is summary, and the punishment inflicted very severe, though not quite so rigorous as formerly.

In disputes between private persons, where the parties are not agreed as to a matter of fact, and have no evidence on either side, the judge asks the plaintiff, whether he will take his oath that the affair was as he had represented it, or refer it to the oath of the defendant. Formerly, he who offered to take his oath was once a week, for three weeks running, brought before the judge, who every day represented to him the importance of an oath, and the dreadful sin of swearing falsely; and if after this he still persists in his readiness to take his oath, though he swore nothing but the truth, the people would consider him as an infamous person, spit in his face, and turn him out of the church; and he was never after admitted to the communion, till his being at the point of death. They now proceed with less rigour. He who is to take his oath is brought before a picture of one of the saints, where he is asked, whether he will swear upon the salvation of his soul? If he persists they give him a little crucifix to kiss, and afterwards the picture of the saint, which is taken down from the wall for that purpose. Though the oath be indisputably true, the person who takes it is not admitted to the communion for three years; and though he is not treated as infamous, the people of any rank will not easily suffer him in their company; but the perjured is punished with the knute, and then banished. Hence

the Russians endeavour as much as possible to avoid taking an oath, though they are very guilty of prophane swearing, and particularly the traders have incessantly in their mouths *po Chrestum*, by Christ, making the sign of the cross at the same time. Strangers are permitted to take their oaths, according to the rules of their several religions.

The office of an executioner was formerly esteemed very honourable; but this office is now esteemed very infamous, and the executioner is not permitted to sell his office; for it must continue in his family, on failure of which the butchers are obliged to chuse one out of their own body.

The ordinary punishments in Russia are, the battogen, katze, and knute. The battogen is thus inflicted; he who is to receive this chastisement is stripped to his shirt, and laid upon the ground on his belly, when two men sitting upon him, one upon his neck, and the other upon his feet, beat him on the back with little wands, or switches, during the time ordered by the judge.—The katze is flitting the nostrils, which was formerly inflicted on those, who, contrary to an old prohibition, took tobacco snuff.—The knute, as given in Russia, is a most barbarous punishment. Olearius describes the manner in which he saw it executed on eight men and one woman, for selling brandy and tobacco without a licence. The executioner's man, after stripping them down to the waist, tied their feet, and took one at a time upon his back. The executioner stood at three paces distant with a bull's pizzle, to the end of which were fastened three thongs of an elk's skin untanned, with which springing forward, whenever he struck, he lashed their backs with all his strength, so that the blood gushed out at every blow. The men had twenty-five or twenty-six lashes each, till an officer, who had in writing the number of stripes they were to receive, cried, "Enough." The woman, who had only sixteen, fainted away. After their backs were thus dreadfully mangled, they were all tied together by the arms two and two; those who sold tobacco having a little horn full of it, and those who had sold brandy, a little bottle about their necks, and whipped through the city for about half a league, after which they were brought back to the place of their first punishment, and then dismissed. Many die of this cruel flagellation. But, horrid as it must appear to every person of humanity, this is only what is called the moderate knute; for when the sentence orders it between the moderate and severe, pieces of flesh are taken off at every stroke of the executioner; and when it is ordered to be given with the utmost severity, the executioner striking the flank under the ribs, cuts the flesh to the very bowels of the miserable sufferer. They punish murder with death. The criminal is kept six weeks in a very close prison upon bread and water alone; after which he receives the communion, and is beheaded. Offenders are sometimes bastinadoed on the soles of their feet in a most cruel manner. Thieves are tortured to make them discover their accomplices, and confess their other crimes; these tortures are as dreadful as can be conceived. But as no person can be convicted of a capital crime but by his own confession, therefore to extort that confession, the most inhuman tortures are used, as the prisoner is obliged to undergo the scourge, the strappado and the knute. The most severe infliction of this last mentioned punishment (above described) is called the pine. The patient is suspended by his arms, pulled up behind till the shoulder joints are dislocated, and in this situation of excruciating misery is flayed with the knute from the neck to the loins. If these tortures do not produce a confession, the parties are seared with red-hot irons, the bones are scorched, the muscles broiled over a slow fire, &c. and should the person thus tormented still persist in denying the charge, melted lead is poured upon the crown of his head till he expires. The thief for the first offence is only whipped from the prison to the market-place, where he has his ears cut off, and is sent back to prison for two years. If he offend a second time, he is whipped as before, and afterwards banished into Siberia. Theft is never punished with death in Russia; but the receivers and concealers of stolen goods are punished equally with the thief.

Traitors, after having undergone a variety of tortures, are banished to Siberia, but not sometimes till they have been deprived of their eyes or ears. Coiners are obliged to swallow the melted metal of the coin which they counterfeited. Those who are hanged are obliged to put the noose about their own necks, and to fling themselves off the ladder when commanded by the executioner. Every lord, or master, has a right to inflict the batags on his servant: this punishment consists in stretching the offender naked on the ground, and causing him to be beaten with sticks by two of his fellow-servants or slaves.

The following account of the whimsical manner in which libellers are punished in Russia we have received from a gentleman who resided some time in that country: "While I resided at Moscow (says he) there was a gentleman who thought

fit to publish a quarto volume in vindication of the liberties of the subject, grossly reflecting upon the unlimited power of the czar Peter, and exposing the iniquity of the whole legislature (if it may be so called) of that empire. The offender was immediately seized by virtue of a warrant signed by one of the principal officers of the state: he was tried in a summary way; his book was determined to be a false libel, and the author condemned to eat his own words. This sentence was literally carried into execution on the following day. A scaffold was erected in the most populous part of the town; the imperial provost was the executioner, and all the magistrates attended at the ceremony. This book was severed from the binding, the margins cut off, and every leaf rolled up, as near as I can recollect, in the form of a lottery ticket when it is taken out of the wheel at Guildhall by the blue-coat-boy. The author of the libel was then served with them separately by the provost, who put them into his mouth, to the no small diversion of the spectators. The gentleman had received a complete mouthful before he began to chew, but he was obliged, upon pain of the severest bastinado, to swallow as many of the leaves as the czar's serjeant surgeon and physician thought it possible for him to do without immediate hazard of his life. As soon as they were pleased to determine that it would be dangerous to proceed, the remainder of the sentence was suspended for that time, and resumed again the next day at the same place and hour, and strictly conformable to the same ceremony. I remember it was three days before this execution was over; but I attended it constantly, and was convinced that he had actually swallowed every leaf of the book. Thus, I think, he may be very justly said to eat his own words."

Merciful as they appear in case of murder, they seem destitute of all humanity, where a man is so unhappy as to be unable to satisfy his creditors. He who does not pay his creditor, at the time agreed upon, is put into the house of an officer appointed for that purpose, and has a certain farther time allowed him to make satisfaction; but if he then fails, he is carried to prison, from whence he is brought every day to a place before the chancery, where the common executioner beats him upon the shin-bones with a wand about the thickness of a man's little finger for an hour together. He is then returned to prison, except he can procure security for his appearing again the next day at the same hour, to be treated in the same manner, till he has made satisfaction. This is rigorously executed upon persons of all ranks, subjects and foreigners, men and women, priests and laymen; and if at last the debtor cannot find wherewith to pay, he with his wife and children are sentenced to be bond-slaves to the creditor.

The revenues of the Russian empire are variously computed; some reckoning that they amount to sixty millions of rubles, others to twenty millions, and others again to no more than eight millions; but we learn from good authority, that in 1725, the Russian finances amounted to thirteen millions of rubles, reckoning only the taxes and duties paid in money, exclusive of what is paid in kind; and the same writer adds, that this sum was then sufficient to maintain three hundred and thirty-nine thousand and five hundred soldiers and sailors; and that both the revenue and troops have increased, as we shall presently make appear from a recent estimate. It is, however, very certain, that the imperial revenues bear no proportion to the vast extent of the Russian dominions; that they do not all consist of ready money, the country in many places furnishing recruits for the army instead of it; and the tribute is paid in furs by most of the inhabitants of Siberia.

The government raise these revenues by an annual capitation or poll-tax, to which the vassals of noblemen pay seventy copeiks, the burghers one hundred and twenty copeiks, and the Tartars and other nations in the territory of Casan pay one hundred and ten copeiks a man. It is computed that five millions of rubles are levied by this tax, by the ways and means following, viz. From the demesne lands, occupied by three hundred and sixty thousand peasants, each of whom pays a hundred and ten copeiks a year, amounting in all to three hundred and ninety-six thousand rubles.—From the inns and drinking-houses, which are about two millions; the privilege of selling beer, mead, and malt-spirits, being monopolized by the crown.—From the tolls and customs by land and sea, which produce about one million one hundred and fifty thousand rubles.—From the trade carried on by the crown in iron, pot-ash, ashes of the willow-tree, rhubarb, tar, and train-oil.—From the salt-works, which yearly bring into the treasury seven hundred thousand rubles.—From the duty on stamp paper, amounting to one hundred and twenty thousand rubles.—From a tax on law-

suits, which pay ten per cent. of the value contested; from hearth-money and Bath-stoves; and from all hackney-horses and carriages.—From the abbey-lands, since their being managed by a secular commission, for the benefit of the crown.—From the caravans to China, which is never less than one hundred thousand rubles.—The produce of the public shows of tumblers and rope-dancers, of which multitudes are exhibited at Easter for the diversion of the people, who are passionately fond of them, is allotted for paying the expence of the police, paving the streets, &c. Besides this, every house-keeper pays an assessment for his house and court-yard, according to the extent of the ground, which is applied to the same purposes.

The sovereigns of Russia formerly styled themselves great dukes, and afterwards czars; but Peter the Great assumed the title of emperor, and that title is now given him by all Europe. The titles of the emperor at full length are, Emperor and sole sovereign of all the Russias, sovereign lord of Moscow, Kiow, Wlodimiria, Novogrod; czar in Casan, Astracan, and Siberia; lord of Pleskow; great duke of Smolensko; duke of Esthonia, Livonia, and Carelia; of Tweria, Ingria, Pernia, Wiatkia, Bulgaria, and lord of several other territories; great duke of Novogrod, in the low country of Tchernickow, Refan, Rostow, Iaroslaw, Bielo-sero, Uldoria, Obdoria, Condinia; emperor of all the northern parts; lord of the territory of Juweria: of the Carthalian, Grewzinian, and Georgian czars; of the Kabardinian, Circassian, and Gorian princes; and lord and supreme ruler of many other countries and territories.

The arms of Russia, since the reign of Iwan Basilowitz, have been, or, an eagle displayed sable, holding a golden scepter and monde in his talons: over the eagle's head are three crowns, and on its breast it bears a shield, with the arms of Moscow in the centre, encompassed by six others, which are those of Astracan, Siberia, Casan, Kiow, and Wlodimiria.

The first and most honourable order in Russia is that of St. Andrew, or the blue ribbon, instituted by Peter the Great, in 1698, in honour of St. Andrew, the tutelar saint of Russia. The empress Catherine gave the statutes, and assigned proper habits for this order, which hath its ensigns, motto and collar. The second is the order of St. Alexander Newski, or the red ribbon, which was instituted by Peter I. but the czarina Catherine first conferred it in the year 1725; this order has also its badge and motto. There is likewise a female order founded by Peter in 1714, in honour of his consort Catherine, and from her called the order of St. Catherine.

With respect to the officers, the chief under the emperor is the chancellor; after him is the grand master of the household, the master of the horse, the treasurer, comptroller, chamberlain, tasters, harbingers, and others of inferior note.

From a state of the Russian forces, as drawn up by Van Hoven, in the year 1746, it appeared that the army then consisted of two hundred and forty-six thousand four hundred and ninety-four regulars, and a hundred and twenty thousand irregulars. The fleet consisted of twenty-four ships of the line, seven frigates, three bomb-ketches, and two flat boats, besides the galley fleet at Petersburg, consisting of one hundred and two gallies. The complement of the whole fleet amounted to ten thousand five hundred and seventy men, of whom seven thousand seven hundred and one were sailors. The fleet has since that time been greatly increased; particularly since the commencement of the late war with the Turks. The men of war, in time of peace, are laid up at Revel and Cronstadt, and the gallies at Petersburg. The Russians indeed have no very good harbour in the Baltic; the water at Cronstadt, by being too fresh, does considerable damage to the ships that lie there; besides, the mouth of the harbour is too narrow, and surrounded with rocks and dangerous sands, and seldom clear of ice before the end of May: nor have they any constant fleet in the Caspian sea.

The high admiral of Russia has the rank and pay of a general field-marshal; and the Russian fleet is divided into three squadrons, commanded by an admiral-general in the centre, who bears a white flag, with a crimson cross; the van has an admiral, who bears a blue flag, with a white cross; and the rear has another admiral, who bears a red flag, with a white cross. Each of these three squadrons has a vice-admiral, a rear-admiral, and three commodores. The gallies are commanded by an admiral, two vice-admirals, three rear admirals, and three commodores. Their flags are of the same colour as those of the squadrons to which they belong, but of a different form. When the emperor commands his fleet in person, his ship bears the royal standard of the empire, which is yellow, and in the middle of it are the arms of Russia.

C H A P. II.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

N O R W A Y.

S E C T. I.

Containing a General Account of the Country, its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Roads, Bridges, Marble and other Stones; and particularly of the Asbestos, precious Stones, Mines, &c.

THIS country is called by the Danes and the Norwegians themselves Norge. It is bounded, on the north and west, by the north sea; on the east, by Swedish Lapland and Sweden; and, on the north, by the sea called Categate, extending in length from the fifty-seventh degree forty-seven minutes to the north cape in the seventy-first degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in breadth from the fourth degree thirty-five minutes to very unequal distances within land, it being in some places two hundred and eighty miles broad, about one hundred and fifty in others, and not above thirty in others.

The air is pure and salubrious in most parts of Norway, but more so in the middle and east side than on the western coast; for in the latter the air is damp, and the weather extremely variable, on which account the Norwegians are frequently afflicted with scorbutic disorders.

When the horizon, in the summer nights, is unclouded, it is so clear and bright, that at midnight one may read, write, and do all kinds of work as in the day; and in the extremity of this country, towards the islands of Finmark, the sun is continually in view in the midst of summer, and is observed day and night to encircle the north pole, contracting its orbit, and then gradually enlarging it, till at length it leaves the horizon. On the other hand, in the depth of winter the sun is for some weeks invisible, all the light perceived at noon being a faint glimmering that continues about an hour and a half, which as the sun does not then appear above the horizon, chiefly proceeds from the reflection of the rays on the highest mountains, whose summits are seen more clearly than any other objects; but the bountiful Creator has granted the inhabitants all possible assistance; for, besides the moonshine, which is rendered very bright in the vallies by reflection from the mountains, the people frequently receive as much light as is necessary for performing their ordinary business, from the aurora borealis, or northern lights.

The cold of winter, in the western parts of this country, generally sets in about the middle of October, and continues till the middle of April. The waters are congealed to a thick ice, and the mountains and vallies covered with snow: yet even this is of so much importance to the welfare of the country, that the peasants, who live among the mountains, are considerable sufferers in a mild winter; for without this severe frost and snow they can neither convey to the rivers the timber they have felled, nor carry their corn, butter, furs, and other commodities, in their sledges, to the market-towns; and, after the sale of them, carry back the necessaries with which they are there supplied: for the largest rivers, with their roaring cataracts, are arrested in their course by the frost, and the very spittle is no sooner out of the mouth than it is congealed, and rolls along the ground like hail. But Providence has afforded the inhabitants of this cold climate a greater variety of preservatives against the weather, than most countries have.

Their extensive forests supply them with plenty of timber for building and for fuel; the wool of the sheep, and the furs and skins of wild beasts furnish them with warm lining for their cloaths, and covering for their beds; innumerable flights of wild fowl supply them with down and feathers; their caverns afford them shelter, and the mountains screen them from the north and east winds.

But while the winter thus rages in the east of Norway the lakes and bays on the west side are kept open by the warm exhalations of the ocean, though lying in a direct line with these frozen eastern parts; and the frosts are seldom known to last above a fortnight or three weeks. Even in the centre of Germany, which is two hundred leagues nearer the line, the winters are generally more severe, and the frosts sharper than in the diocese of Bergen; for the inhabitants here are often surprised at reading in the public papers of frost and snow in Poland and Germany, when they feel no such weather; and the learned Dr. Pontoppidan observes, that the harbours of Amsterdam, Hamburgh, Copenhagen, and Lubeck, are much oftener froze than those of Norway, where this seldom happens above two or three times in a whole century. Thus the winter at Bergen is so moderate, that the seas are almost always open to fishermen and mariners; and there the north sea continues navigable during the whole winter as far as the eightieth or eighty-second degree. Thus while the inhabitants of the eastern parts have, by means of the ice and snow, the convenience of bringing their commodities in sledges to the market-towns, those of the western side on the sea-coast are at the same time employed in their profitable fisheries. All the eastern coast of Bergen is however so subject to frequent rains, that the men, whenever they go abroad, wear rain-hats made like umbrellas; and the women secure themselves, in all weathers, by wearing over their heads a black woolen or silk vail.

The weather in summer is extremely hot. But the violent heats, which are only of short duration, may be owing to the vallies being inclosed within high mountains, where the reverberation of the rays of the sun on all sides heat the air; and as there is very little night, the atmosphere and the mountains have scarcely time to cool. There cannot be a more convincing proof of the summer's heat in Norway, than that several vegetables, and particularly barley, grow up and ripen within six weeks or two months in some places.

The western coast of Norway is surrounded by a great number of islands and rocks, some of the former being three, six, or nine Norway miles in length, and pretty fertile; but most of them are small, and inhabited by only a few fishermen and pilots. The rocks, which rise several fathoms above the surface of the water, are a kind of rampart that defends the coast, and amount to some hundred thousands. They form abundance of good harbours; and in many places iron rings are fastened to them for mooring ships, where there is not sea-room or good anchorage. As the water is calm and smooth, they are of great service to coasters, the violence of the waves being broken against these barriers, while the open places are very dangerous, and every year prove fatal to many small vessels. The shore of Norway is generally steep and perpendicular, so that close to the rocks, the depth of the sea is from one to four hundred fathoms. Several gulfs and creeks run from forty to sixty miles into the land; and in some of them, which are but from fifty to one hundred fathoms in breadth, there runs a narrow channel four hundred fathoms deep; but the depth does not exceed one hundred fathoms on the sides.

Norway being a very mountainous country, the arable land is but inconsiderable in comparison of the waters and deserts, which obliges the inhabitants to procure half their subsistence from the sea. Hence the villages are small, and the houses scattered among the vallies; but in some places those of the peasants stand so high on the edge of steep precipices, that

that ladders are fixed to climb up to them ; so that when a clergyman is sent for, who is unused to the road, he risks his life in ascending them, especially in winter, when the ways are slippery. In such places the bodies of the dead are let down with ropes, or brought down on men's backs, before they are laid in a coffin ; and at some distance from Bergen, they are obliged to draw the mail over the steepest mountains, in the winter season.

A great inconvenience experienced by travellers arises from the roads ; for they cannot, without terror, pass even the king's road, which in several places extends up the sides of steep and craggy mountains on ways that are either shored up, or suspended by iron bolts fixed in the mountains ; and though not above the breadth of a foot-path, have no rails on the side. If two travellers were to meet there in the night, and not see each other soon enough to stop where the road will suffer them to pass, they must stop short, without being able to pass by each other, or to find a turning for their horses, or even to alight. The only resource I can imagine in this difficulty, says the bishop of Bergen, is, that one must endeavour to cling to some cliff of this steep mountain, or, if help be at hand, be drawn up by a rope, and then throw his horse headlong down a tremendous precipice, in order to make room for the other traveller to pass. The caverns of the mountains also afford shelter to the wild beasts, which render it difficult to extirpate them ; and it is not easy to describe the havoc made by the lynxes, foxes, bears, and especially wolves, among the cattle, goats, hares, and other animals.

The cows, sheep, and goats belonging to the peasants often fall down the precipices, and are destroyed. Sometimes they make a false step into the projection called a mountain-hammer, where they can neither ascend nor descend : on this occasion a peasant cheerfully ventures his life for a sheep or a goat ; descending from the top of a mountain by a rope of some hundred fathoms in length, with his legs over a cross stick, till he sets his foot on the place where he finds his goat, when he fastens it to the rope, and it is drawn up along with himself. But the most amazing circumstance is, that he runs this risk with the help of only a single person, who holds the end of the rope, or fastens it to a rock, if there be one at hand proper for that purpose. There are instances of the assistant himself having been dragged down, sacrificing his life from his fidelity to his friend, on which both have perished. When a man or beast has thus the misfortune to fall some hundred fathoms down the precipices, it is observed, that the air presses with such force against the bodies thus falling, that they are not only deprived of life for some time before they reach the ground, but their bellies burst, and their entrails come out, which is always the case when they fall into deep water.

The multitude of springs that issue from the mountains, and the vast masses of snow accumulated on their summits, which gently dissolve in summer, form many lakes, in some of which are floating islands, and a considerable number of rivers, the largest of which is the Glommen, or Glamer ; but none of them are navigable far up the country ; the passage being every where interrupted by rocks, and in some places by dreadful cataracts, in which the stream precipitates itself from the height of forty, fifty, and even a hundred fathoms. The bridges over these rivers are not walled, but formed of timber cases filled with stones, which serve for the piers on which the timbers are laid. The largest bridge of this kind has forty-three stone cases, and is a hundred paces in length. In those places where the narrowness and rapidity of the current will not admit of sinking these cases, thick masts are laid on each side of the shores, with the thickest end fastened to the rocks : one mast being thus laid in the water, another is placed upon it, reaching a fathom beyond it, and then a third or fourth in like manner to the middle of the stream, where it is joined by other connected masts from the opposite side. Thus in passing over the bridge, especially in the middle, it seems to swing, which to those who are not used to these bridges appears extremely dangerous, so that filled with terror they alight and lead over their horses.

Some advantages, however, attend the mountains of Norway ; a great chain of them serves as a barrier between this country and Sweden ; and besides, they exhibit the most delightful prospects ; for here nature has added greater beauties to the situation of cottages and farm-houses, than in other countries can be enjoyed by royal palaces, though assisted by all the varieties of groves, terraces, canals, and cascades. A predecessor of mine, says the bishop of Bergen, is said to have given the name of the Northern Italy

to the district of Wans, which lies some leagues to the eastward of Bergen ; and certainly there cannot be a more enchanting prospect. The buildings in it are the church, the parsonage, and a few farm-houses scattered on different eminences.

The beauty of this place is much heightened by two uniform mountains gradually rising to a vast height, betwixt which runs a valley near half a league in breadth, and a river which sometimes precipitates itself down the rocks in foaming cataracts, and at others spreads itself into small lakes. On both sides it is bordered with the finest meadows intermingled with little thickets, and by the easy declivities of the verdant mountains covered with fruitful fields and farm-houses, standing above each other in a succession of natural terraces. Between these a stately forest presents itself to the view, and beyond that the summits of mountains covered with perpetual snow, and ten or twelve streams, issuing therefrom, form an agreeable contrast in their meanders along the blooming sides of the hills, till they lose themselves in the rivers beneath.

The bowels of some of the mountains contain several of the most beautiful kinds of marble, some white, others veined with blue, and others variegated with a variety of colours ; there is likewise black marble spotted with white, green marble with greyish veins, and blue marble with white veins. They also contain such quantities of the magnet or loadstone, that some tons of them have been exported : they likewise yield the asbestos, of which incombustible linen and paper have been made, and which is thus described by Dr. Pontoppidan, bishop of Bergen : " Having heard of some wood petrified by a certain spring, I wrote, says he, for some samples, and a large parcel of it was sent me. At first I thought it resembled hazel, that had lain a long time in the water ; but upon a narrow inspection, and drawing out some of the filaments, I found it to be amianthus, much finer than the Greenland stone-flax, which the reverend Mr. Egede says is used there as wick in the lamps, without being in the least wasted, while supplied with oil or fat. This amianthus, from the softness and fineness of its fibres, deserves to be called stone-silk, rather than stone-flax : I also made a wick for a lamp of it, and it was not consumed ; but its light being much dimmer than that produced by cotton, I laid it aside. I have also in my possession a piece of paper of this asbestos, which when thrown into fire is not destroyed ; but what was written on it totally disappears.

" The manner of preparing this stone-silk or stone-flax is this : after its being softened in water it is beaten with a moderate force, till the fibres, or long threads, separate from each other ; afterwards they are carefully and repeatedly washed till clear of all terrene particles ; then the flax is dried in a sieve : all that remains now is to spin these fine filaments, wherein great care is required ; besides which the fingers must be softened with oil, that the thread may be the more supple and pliant."

Notwithstanding this country abounds in stones, yet no flints have hitherto been found there, so that those for fire-arms are imported from Denmark or Germany : but though there are no flints, there are amethysts, garnets, chalcedonies, crystals, agate, and jasper.

This country formerly produced gold ; but the expence of working the mines, and separating the gold from the ore, being greater than the profit, they have been neglected. There are, however, silver mines, which are extremely valuable, and give employment to several thousand persons : the principal of these is at Kongsberg. Other silver mines are worked at Jarlsberg, but not to the same advantage, the ore being mixed with lead and copper. In many parts of this country copper mines have been discovered, the richest of which is at Roraas, about a hundred English miles from Drontheim, which annually yields eleven hundred ship-pounds of pure copper, each ship-pound being equal to twenty English stone. Here are likewise some lead mines, but none either of tin or quicksilver. Iron is in great plenty, many hundred thousand quintals being annually exported, chiefly in bars, and the rest cast in cannon, kettles, stoves, and the like.

SECTION II.

Treating of the Natural History of NORWAY ; namely, of the Produce of the Country ; also of the Beasts, Birds, Insects, and Fishes.

NOTWITHSTANDING the northern situation of this country, it produces rye, barley, white, grey, and green peas, and vetches, which last are used as pro-
vender

vender for horses; hops, flax, and hemp; many kinds of roots and greens for the kitchen, with a considerable number of hardy flowers. Here are several kinds of cherries, of which the peasants sell great quantities dried; also many sorts of wholesome and well-tasted berries, as straw-berries, raspberries, red and white currants, gooseberries, sun-berries, bilberries, barberries, cranberries, blackberries, &c. Several kinds of plums attain to a tolerable ripeness; but this is seldom the case with peaches, apricots, and grapes. However, several sorts of apples and pears are found all over the country; but the greatest part of these are summer fruit, which ripen early; for winter fruit seldom comes to perfection, except the summer proves hotter, and the winter sets in later than usual.

Though Norway is inferior, with respect to its fruits, to many other countries in Europe, yet this deficiency is compensated by its immense forests, from which most of the provinces receive prodigious sums from foreigners for beams, masts, planks, and boards; besides the great consumption for houses built at home, entirely of beams of wood; also for ships, bridges, and a great number of founderies, which require an immense quantity of charcoal in the fusion of metals. In many places the woods are only felled to clear the ground, and are burnt for the sake of the ashes, to enrich the soil.

Their horses are of greater use in riding than drawing; they have an easy pace, are full of spirit, and very sure footed. When they mount or descend a steep rock on stones, like steps, they first tread gently with one foot, to try if the stones they touch be fast; and in this they must be left to themselves, or the best rider will endanger his neck; but when they are to go down a very steep or slippery place, they draw their hind legs under them in a very surprising manner, and slide down. They shew great courage in fighting with the wolves and bears, which is very usual with them; for when a horse perceives any of these ferocious animals advancing towards him, and has a mare or gelding with him, this generous animal places them behind him, and then attacks his antagonist by striking at him with his fore-legs, with such courage, that he commonly remains conqueror. Both the Norway horses and cows are in general of a yellowish colour; but the latter are small, and yield no great quantity of milk; however, their flesh has a fine grain, is juicy, and well tasted.

Their sheep are small, but the flesh is delicious, and the fleeces profitable. Goats, in many places, run wild in the fields, both in winter and summer, till they are ten or twelve years old; and when the peasant, to whom they belong, is resolved to take them, he must either do it by some snare, or shoot them: they are so bold, that, on the approach of a wolf, they stay to receive him, and, if they have dogs with them, will resist a whole herd. They also frequently attack the snakes; and when they are bit by them, not only kill, but eat them, though they are ill for several days. If these goats are tame, the owner washes the wound with their own milk warmed.

Swine are not plenty in Norway; nor are there many of the common deer; but the hares, which in the cold season change from brown or grey to a snow white, are taken in great numbers in winter. In some parts of the country there are elks, but they are not very numerous. The reindeer run wild in herds, and are shot by the inhabitants for food. The bishop of Bergen observes, that when the reindeer sheds his horns, and others rise in their stead, they appear at first covered with a skin, and, till they are of a finger's length, are so soft, that they may be cut with a knife like a sausage, and are delicate eating, even when raw. The huntsmen, therefore, when far out in the country, and perishing for want of food, eat them, and find that they satisfy both their hunger and thirst. But when the horn is grown, there breeds within the skin a worm, which eats away the root. It is also remarked of this animal, that he can draw a kind of skin over his eyes, and can see through it, otherwise in the hard snows he would be obliged to shut his eyes entirely.

In this country are also found the lynx, vast numbers of black, red, and white foxes; and the glutton, which receives its name from its voracious appetite. Those of this country, in their shape and size, have some resemblance to a long-bodied dog with thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his colour is black, variegated with brown and yellowish streaks: he has the boldness to attack every beast he can possibly conquer; and if he finds a carcase six times as big as himself, he will not leave it, while there is any left: when fully gorged, he squeezes himself between two trees that stand near together, and thus empties himself of what

he has not time to digest. As his skin shines like damask, and is covered with soft hair, it is much valued: the huntsman therefore shoots this animal with a bow, and blunt arrows, that he may kill him without wounding the skin.

They likewise hunt the martin for the sake of the skin; and the ermine and squirrel, both of which are shot with blunt arrows. The skin of the ermine is of a beautiful white, and the tip of the tail black. These little animals run after mice like cats, and drag away what they catch, particularly eggs, which are their greatest delicacy. Here are also otters, beavers, hedge-hogs, and badgers. Some of the mice are thought to be poisonous and others are remarkable for their being white, and having red eyes.

The most pernicious vermin here is a little animal called the *loemus*, or lemming, which is between the size of a rat and a mouse; the tail is short and turned up at the end, and the legs are also so short, that they scarce keep the belly from the ground. They have very soft hair, and are of different colours; many of them are black, with yellow and brown in streaks, and some in spots. It is said of these creatures, that about once or twice in every twenty years, they assemble from their secret abodes in prodigious numbers, like the messengers of heaven, to punish the neighbouring inhabitants. They proceed from Kolen's rock, which divides the Nordland manor from Sweden, and is held to be their peculiar and native place, marching in vast multitudes through Nordland and Finland to the Western ocean; and other bodies of them through Swedish Lapmark to the Sinus Bothnicus, devouring all the grass and vegetables in their way. They do this in a direct line, and going straight forward, proceed into the rivers or the sea: thus, if they meet with a boat in any river, they run in at one end or side, and out again at the other, in order to keep their course. They carry their young with them on their backs, or in their mouths; and if they meet with peasants who come to oppose them, they will stand undaunted, and bark at them like dogs. This evil is, however, of short duration; for, on entering the sea, they swim as long as their strength lasts, and then are drowned. If any are stopped in their course, and unable to reach the sea, they are killed by the frosts of winter, and if any of these escape, most of them die as soon as they eat the new grass.

Toads and snakes are only in the southern parts of this country, and these snakes are less poisonous than in warmer climates. Lizards are here of various colours, as brown, green, and striped; those that are green are found in the fields, and the others in the cracks and holes in the rocks near the sea.

Most of the fowls found in the rest of Europe are here, and some that appear peculiar to this country. Among the former are common poultry, turkeys, tame and wild geese, peacocks, ducks, and pigeons; nightingales, larks, quails, partridges, starlings, wrens, magpies, bats, water-wagtails, storks, herons, gulls, owls, ravens, cormorants, falcons, eagles, and many others. Of the latter, there are only two species, the rock-eagle and the fish-eagle.

The rock-eagle is somewhat less than the other, and spotted with grey; it haunts the highest places in the country, and frequently kills hares, sheep, lambs, and the like animals, as well as birds. The farmers here say, that he will sometimes attack a deer, in which case he makes use of the following stratagem: he soaks his wings in water, and then covering them with sand, and flying about the deer's face, blinds him for a time, when the pain makes him run about as if mad, and he frequently falls down a rock and breaks his neck, upon which the eagle seizes upon him for his prey. Young children are said to be sometimes carried away by this ravenous bird.

The other, called the fish-eagle, is of a large size, and of a light brown. Though it does not dislike a dead carcase on shore, it lives principally on fish, which it often takes from the otters, and frequently seizes fish on the surface of the water. When this bird flies out to sea in order to strike a fish with his talons, he sometimes lays hold of such as are too strong for him, particularly the fish here called the *quite*, whose high and prominent back makes him appear much less than he really is: when the eagle strikes his talons into him, he cannot easily disengage them, on account of their crookedness and length, in which case the fish drags him down with him; while the bird, making a miserable cry, strives to keep himself up, and works with his wings spread as long as possible, though in vain; for at last he must yield, and fall a prey to those he intended to devour. Another instance is mentioned in order to shew that this king of birds, as he

is called, extends his attempts beyond his power. Near Bergen, an eagle standing on the bank of a river, saw a large salmon as it were just under him; on which he instantly struck one of his talons into the root of an elm near it, and partly hanging over the river, struck the other into the salmon, which being large and strong, swam away, and split the eagle to the neck.

The francolin is ranked among the birds in a manner peculiar to this country, it is an excellent land-bird, which serves the Norwegians instead of a pheasant, its flesh being of a delicious taste, white and firm.

Here is also a pretty large sea-bird, called the great northern diver, which is bigger than a goose. It has a long neck, the upper part of which is black, as well as the beak and feet; but from the breast downwards it is white. There are also some white feathers at the extremity of the wings and tail. The wings are so short, that they can hardly raise themselves with them; and the legs stand so far backward, that they are less fit to walk with than to paddle along the water, on which account they are seldom seen to come ashore. They are said to lay but two eggs, and that under their wings there are two pretty deep holes big enough to put one's fist in. In each of these they hide an egg, and hatch the young ones there as perfectly, and with less trouble than others do on land.

The Norway parrot is a middle-sized sea-bird, somewhat larger than a pigeon. Its feathers are black and white, and its beak, which is hooked like that of a parrot, is striped with yellow, red, and black, and so sharp, that when he bites any of the bird-catchers, he takes away a piece of flesh: his claws are also very sharp, with which, and his beak, he defends himself against the raven, whom he holds by the throat, and will carry out to sea, and drown him before he loses hold. This bird builds his nest between the clefts of the rock, and also in a slanting hole in the ground, two or three ells deep.

The bird called the black-cap is almost as small as the wren; the body is black and yellow, white under the belly and the top of the head black. These birds keep near the houses, and are such lovers of meat, that the farmers can hardly keep them from it, and therefore catch them in a trap like mice. In short, there are such incredible numbers of sea and land fowl near the rocks on the sea shore, that they sometimes obscure the sight of the heavens for many miles out at sea, so that one would imagine that all the fowls in the universe were assembled in one flock at the same time.

This country is also as plentifully supplied with fish as any in the world. Here are whales of several kinds, porpoises, sword-fish, and sharks; sturgeon, salmon, salmon-trout, turbot, cod, thornback, rock, flying-fish, whiting, carp, gurnet, flounders, plaice, mackerel, herrings, bream, anchovies, eels, and many others well known in other parts.

The fin-fish, which is not very common, is forty feet or more in length; their liver alone yields several casks of train oil. On their backs they have a high round and sharp bone, with which they tear open the bellies of other fish. They are covered with a kind of hair, something like a horse's mane, and are often seen about the boats of the fishermen, who are as much afraid of them as of the most dangerous monsters that infest the sea.

One of the most extraordinary creatures produced in the ocean, is the ink-fish, called by some the sea gnat: it is from nine inches to upwards of two feet in length. The head has two large eyes, and the mouth has some resemblance to a bird's beak; above which there stand two long arms or horns, each of which is octangular, and covered with a number of small round balls, somewhat larger than a pin's head. At the back of the head are two of these horns twice as long as the rest, and broader towards the end. The body is almost round, it resembles a small bag, and is blunt at both ends. On each side of it are two skinny membranes, with which the animal can cover itself over; and it assumes various forms by the motion of its skin and arms: but what must appear very extraordinary, the fore part of the body is filled with a fluid, which makes the fish appear of a blue colour, though this fluid is of a fine black, and may serve for ink to write with. When these creatures are in danger, they discharge this liquid, which blackening the water all round them, they become invisible to their pursuers, and by this means make their escape. Thus this otherwise helpless animal is provided by the wise Creator for its defence. If any of this black fluid happens to drop upon the hand, it burns like a caustic, and causes great pain.

Here are also a vast variety of shell-fish, as lobsters,

crabs, craw-fish, prawns, shrimps, oysters, mussels, cockles, sea-snails, star-fish, hermit-fish, and many others: one of the most curious of which is the sea-urchin, known also by the name of the sea-apple, a name that represents the size and figure of the thin and tender shell that surrounds this extraordinary fish, which is very common on the coast of Norway, where they are seen every day. They are of various sizes, from that of a walnut to the head of a new-born infant: some are of the form of a cone, and others are quite round, except the under part, which is pretty flat, and of these are the greatest number. The shell is covered with a multitude of small sharp prickles like small pins, which they probably shed once a year, and have new ones. When they are just taken out of the sea, they have a beautiful greenish lustre, but their greatest beauty appears when they are dried, boiled, and the prickles rubbed off. This beauty consists in certain regular interchangeable stripes of a cylindrical form, running from the top to the bottom; some are white, others of an orange colour, others are of a light red, and others of a deep red: and these stripes are strewed over with as many little white knobs as there were originally prickles. When this fine shell is broken, which is easily done, there is found in it a quantity of slime and water, with a small fish, of a black, or dark-red colour; and from this little body there runs into all parts of the shell a great number of fine threads, that seem only composed of a thicker slime, and have a communication with the external prickles; and a yellow spawn is disposed in stripes between those. The fish lies stretched from the bottom to the top of the shell, where there is an almost imperceptible opening through which the excrements pass. The mouth, which is extremely curious, is formed of five bones, part convex and part concave, all running to a small point, where they join together like the bill of a bird, and have some resemblance to a flower. The sea-urchin rolls himself about on his prickles wherever he pleases, and is generally found in a sandy bottom.

Here is also that extraordinary production of nature, ranked among fishes, called the sea-nettle, and is of two kinds; one comprehending those that always remain fixed in one place like sea plants; and the other consists of those that change their place. Reaumur deems them real animals, because they have organized bodies, and give signs of feeling when they are touched; besides which, they lay hold of shell-fish, and others, which they eat; and have also a progressive motion. These nettles assume so many different shapes, that it is impossible to describe them under any determinate figure; but in general their outward form approaches nearest to a truncated cone, having its base fixed to some stone, to which it is found always adhering. Some are greenish, others whitish, and others again of a rose colour; there are others likewise of all the degrees of brown. In some of these nettles, these colours appear every where on the surface, and in others they are mixed with streaks or spots. Sometimes again these spots are distributed in a regular, and at others in an irregular manner, but always very agreeably.

The wandering sea-nettles have nothing common with the preceding except in the name, and they have different appellations in different places, as also according to their sizes.

Many Norwegians of credit have affirmed, that the northern ocean produces some very extraordinary animals, the existence of which had been doubted by mankind in general; these are, the merman, mermaid, great sea-snake and kraken, or korven; of which, for the satisfaction of the curious reader, we shall here give some account.

A learned and ingenious gentleman, writing concerning the merman and mermaid, tells us, that "they are sea animals which bear some resemblance to the human form. In the year 1719, one of the males of this species was found dead on a point of land in Norland. His colour was of a dark grey; the face resembled that of a man, with a large mouth, and flat nose; the arms were attached to the sides by a thin membrane, and terminated in paws like those of the sea-calf. The body tapered into a fish's tail, like that of a porpoise, and the length extended to three fathoms. The mermaid is formed in the same manner, abating the difference of sex, which is distinguished like that of the human race. These creatures have been seen of various magnitudes, from two feet to three fathoms, and have been found in many parts of the north seas.

"Three fishermen of Elfsneur, in Denmark, being examined upon oath, before the privy counsellor, Frederick Van Gram, declared, that in the month of July 1723,

in calm weather, between Hveen and Saedland, they approached, in their boat, something that just floated on the surface like a dead body; which lay without motion till they were within seven or eight fathoms of it; then it sunk instantaneously, and rose again nearly in the same place. There he stood near a quarter of an hour staring at them; and was then above the water to his breast. They, being terrified at the sight of this monster, began to row away; then he blew up his cheeks, uttered a kind of muttering roar, and dived under water. He appeared like an old man, with broad shoulders, and a small head covered with short, black, curled hair; his eyes were hollow, his face meagre and weather-beaten, and his skin was coarse and hairy.

"One of these deponents further declared, that about twenty years before he had seen a mermaid, with long hair and large breasts. The marmiele, or marmate, belongs to the same class, and is perhaps the young of this family; it is formed of different sizes, and often caught on hooks by the fishermen of Norway. Some are no bigger than infants half a year old, others are as large as children of three years of age.

"In the year 1746, captain Laurence de Tercy, of Bergen, shot a sea-snake, which immediately disappeared; and when the boat was rowed, near the place, the water appeared tinged with blood. The head of this animal, which it held at least two feet above the surface of the water, was of a greyish colour, and resembled the head of a horse; the mouth was very large and black, the eyes were of the same colour, and a long white mane hung down from its neck, and floated on the sea. Besides the head, they saw seven or eight coils of this snake, about the distance of a fathom one from the other.

"We find in Egede's journal of the Greenland mission, that on the 6th of July 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. It plunged itself back in the water, and then raised its tail above the surface, a whole ship's length from the head. Though the exact dimensions of the sea-snake cannot be ascertained, we may conclude, from the concurrent testimony of those who have seen it at sea, that he is an hundred fathoms in length; and that his body is as large as a hog'shead. That his sense of smelling is very acute, the fishermen conjecture from the circumstance of his avoiding the scent of castor, a quantity of which they therefore provide themselves with when they go out to fish in the summer; and they throw a small portion of it overboard, when they meet the sea-snake.

"The kraken, or korven, is the most surprising creature in this sea, and perhaps in the whole world. This animal is of the polypus kind, but seemingly a mile and a half in circumference. The Norwegian fishermen sometimes, in a summer-day, find no more than twenty or thirty fathoms water, where the depth used to be eighty or one hundred; and here they catch great plenty of cod and ling. They know the kraken is below them, and that they are fishing upon his back. When they perceive, by their lines, that the water grows more and more shallow, they judge he is rising slowly to the surface, and row away with great expedition. At a proper distance they lie upon their oars, and in a few minutes part of him appears above the water like a number of small islands and sand-banks, covered with sea-weeds, and abounding with a great variety of fish, that leap about, and roll off his sides into the water. At length a great number of pellucid antennæ rise upon his back, as large and as high as the masts of moderate vessels: by means of these instruments, or tentacula, he moves himself and gathers in his food, which consists of small fishes; after he has remained a little time at the surface, he begins to sink again gradually, and this motion produces a dangerous swell and whirlpool in the water. In all probability, the back of this huge monster has been mistaken for the floating islands which have been described by so many voyage-writers. The whale bone or blubber whale, the spermaceti whale, the great sea-snake, and the kraken, seem to have been all described, in the holy scriptures, under the general name of leviathan: for that word implies not a particular fish only, but a huge sea-monster, or fish of a prodigious size. For want of knowing this, those beautiful passages in the book of Job, where leviathan is described, have been frequently misunderstood.

S E C T. III.

Describing the Inhabitants of NORWAY; their Person, Dress, Diet, Manners, Hospitality, their various Employments, Fishing, Agriculture, Fowling, and Trade, &c.

THE people of this country are in general tall, well made, and of lively dispositions; yet those on the coast are said to be neither so tall, nor so robust as those that inhabit the mountains, but are remarkable for being fatter, and having rounder faces. The hair and eyes of the Norwegians are of a lighter colour than those of most other nations; and a dark complexion is as rare here, as a fair complexion in Italy. Indeed their eyes are generally blue, or of a light grey; and they differ in every respect from the Laplanders, who lie farther to the north, are of a smaller stature, have a flatter visage, black hair, and a brown complexion. The Norwegians are in general brisk, active, and so ingenious, that the peasants employ neither hatters, shoe-makers, weavers, taylor, tanners, carpenters, joiners, nor smiths; all these trades being exercised in every farm house; and they think, that unless a boy becomes master of all these arts, he can neither be a useful member of society, nor a good man.

The dress of the Norwegians, who live in tents, has nothing remarkable in it; but the peasants do not trouble themselves about fashions. Those termed sterile farmers have their breeches and stockings of one piece. They have a wide loose jacket made of warm woollen cloth, as are also their waistcoats; and those who are fond of appearing fine, have the seams covered with cloth of different colour. The peasants of one parish are remarkable for wearing white cloaths edged with black; the dress of another parish is black edged with red; and that of another all black; others wear black and yellow; and thus the colour of the cloaths of the inhabitants varies in almost every parish.

On their heads they wear a flapped hat, or a little brown, grey, or black cap, made quite round, and the seams adorned with black ribbands. They have shoes of a particular construction without heels, consisting of two pieces, the upper leather sitting close to the foot, and the sole being joined to it by many plaits and folds. In winter, and when they travel, they wear a sort of half boots, that reach up to the calf of the leg, and are laced on one side; and when they go on the rocks in the snow, they put on snow-shoes: but as these are troublesome, when they have a great way to travel, they put on snow-skais, which are about as broad as the foot, but six or eight feet long, and pointed before; they are covered underneath with seal-skin, so that the smooth grain of the hair turns backwards to the heel. With these snow-skais they slide as fast upon the snow as upon the ice, and with a swiftness exceeding that of any horse.

The lower class of people never wear a neckcloth, or any thing of that kind, except when they are dressed; for their neck and breast are always open, and they let the snow beat into their bosoms: on the contrary, they cover their veins, binding a woollen fillet round their wrists. They wear about their body a large leather belt, adorned with convex brass plates, to which hangs a brass chain that holds their large knife, gimblet, and other useful articles.

The dress of the women when at church, and in general assemblies, consists of jackets laced close: they have also leather girdles, with silver ornaments about them. They also wear a silver chain three or four times round the neck, with a gilt medal hanging at the end of it. Their handkerchiefs and caps are almost covered with small silver, brass, and tin plates, buttons, and large rings, such as they wear on their fingers, to which they hang again a parcel of small ones, which make a jingling noise when they move. A maiden bride has her hair plaited, and hung as full as possible with such kind of trinkets, as also her cloaths.

They generally build their houses of fir and pine-trees, the whole trunks of which are only chopped to make them lie close, and then laid one upon another, and fastened with mortices at the corners. These trunks are left round as they grow, both on the inside and outside of the houses, and are frequently boarded over and painted, especially in the trading towns, which make them appear very genteel.

In the country villages, the people build their houses at a distance from each other, with their fields and grounds about them. The store-house for the provisions is generally at a distance from the dwelling house, for fear of fire,

fire, and placed high upon poles to keep the provisions dry, and preserve them from mice and all kinds of vermin. The kitchen also stands separate, as do the cow-houses, barns, stables, &c.

A farm has generally a mill belonging to it, situated by some rivulet; besides a smith's forge. Up the country, where timber for building is of little value, there are many farm-houses as large as the seats of noblemen: these are frequently two stories high, and have a railed balcony in the front, and the additional buildings resemble a village. The common farm-houses have, however, only the ground-floor, and no other window but a square hole in the wall, which in summer is left open; but in winter, or in wet weather, is covered with a wooden frame, over which is the inward transparent membrane of some animal that is very strong. This hole, which is as high as possible, answers the purpose of a chimney, by letting out the smoke. Under the above hole there is generally placed a long thick table, with benches round it; and at the upper end is a high seat, which belongs solely to the master. In the towns these houses are covered with tiles; but in the country the people lay over the boards the sappy bark of birch trees, which will not decay in many years. They cover this again three or four inches thick with turf, on which there always grows grass or moss.

The Norwegians are extremely civil in their behaviour, and are willing to do to another any friendly act in their power. They are so hospitable, that a traveller is seldom permitted to pay for his lodging; for they think it their duty to treat a stranger as well as they can, and think he does them an honour by accepting of their civilities; yet the peasant never gives his place at the upper end of the table to the greatest guest that ever comes under his roof; for he claims a peculiar right to that place. At Christmas, they keep open house for three weeks, during which their tables are spread and loaded with the best provisions they can afford. At Christmas-eve, their hospitality extends to the very birds, for whose use they hang on a pole at the barn-door an unthreshed sheaf of corn, which draws thither the sparrows, and other small birds, that feast upon the provision.

The diet of the inhabitants in the trading towns is much the same as that of the Danes; but the peasants adhere to the manners of their forefathers: Oat cakes are their common bread; but upon particular occasions, as at weddings, or other entertainments, they have rye-bread. However, if grain be scarce, which is usually the case after a very severe winter, the peasants have recourse to what even they esteem a disagreeable method of preserving life, by boiling and drying the bark of the fir-tree, mixing it with a little oatmeal, and making it into a sort of bread; and that they may think this food less disagreeable in times of scarcity, they accustom themselves to eat some of it, when there is plenty of the better sort.

The Norway peasants esteem their best dainties to consist in milk, meats, and different sorts of cheese, on which they spread butter, as on bread. The highland peasants are so fond of angelica, which grows very plentifully in the mountains, that they chew it in a morning dried, and also use it as snuff.

The people furnish themselves with game in the mountains, and the lakes and rivers afford plenty of fresh-water fish. They kill cows, sheep, and goats, for their winter stock, part of which they pickle and smoak; and some of it they cut in thin slices, sprinkle it with salt, then dry it in the wind, and eat it like hung beef. They chew and smoak tobacco, and are fond of brandy.

The lower class of people are generally employed in cutting wood, felling and floating of timber, burning of charcoal, and extracting of tar. Many are also employed in the mines, furnaces, and stamping mills; also in navigation and fishing, besides hunting and shooting; for every body is at liberty to pursue the game, especially in the mountains, and on the heaths and commons, where every peasant may make use of what arms he likes best.

These people are inured to cold and hardships from their childhood: for in the latter end of November they run about bare-footed, even upon the ice. The mountaineers, who daily go in the woods have frequently their beards full of icicles, and their bosoms full of snow. Our author says, that in his travels over the highest mountains of Norway, which are covered with snow, and where horses are of no service, he has seen the peasants in great numbers do the work of these animals, whom they seem almost to equal in strength. When they have been in a profuse sweat, he saw them throw themselves every half hour upon the snow, for the sake of its refreshing coolness, and even sucked it to

quench their thirst. This they undergo without the least apprehensions of a cold, or a fever, and without murmuring, or betraying the least discontent. On the contrary, they go on singing merrily, and with incredible cheerfulness and alacrity undergo the hardest labour imaginable for nine hours, without intermission.

No less remarkable are the strong constitutions of the fishermen and sea-faring people of this country. The peasants of both sexes assemble together in prodigious numbers about the middle of January, to make their winter-harvest of the rich produce of the ocean. The people of every family at these times take with them five or six weeks provisions, which chiefly consist of dried fish. They keep out at sea all day and a great part of the night, by moonshine, in open boats; and after that crowd together by scores into little huts built in the islands near the coast, where they have hardly room to lay themselves down in their wet cloaths. Here they repose themselves the remainder of the night, and the next morning return to the same laborious employment with as much pleasure and cheerfulness as if they were going to an entertainment.

In this country, agriculture is less burthen some to the husbandman than in other parts; for he does not here toil in the fields of an oppressive lord; but the fruits of his labour, as in the British dominions, are his absolute and certain property. But, on the other hand, it is in many places attended with great inconvenience and fatigue: for the fields consist of little spots of ground among the rocks, many of which must be dug instead of being plowed, particularly in the diocese of Bergen, where the soil is less fruitful, and affords few places where the plough can be used. Instead of this, they sometimes use a crooked stick, with an iron at the end, which yielding easier to the stones, is not so subject to break. Nor is the harvest without its difficulties; the grain, according to the old custom of the peasants, not being mowed with a scythe, except about Christiana, where it is lately come into use, but cut with a sickle; for the corn often grows so thick and close, and the stalks are so apt to bend with the weight of the ears, that the reapers grasp the stems with one hand, while they cut them with the other, and then bind them in sheaves: that they may be thoroughly aired and dried, a great number of poles are set up in the fields, and six or eight sheaves hung to each pole.

No waggons are used in harvest work, except on the frontiers, where they have been introduced; but instead of them, the Norway peasants use sledges, and are prejudiced against any other kind of vehicle, even in places where waggons might easily travel, though their work would be performed with much greater ease and expedition. But in this and every thing else they are so superstitiously tenacious of the customs transmitted to them by their forefathers, that they will not venture to move a stone which their parents had placed in a particular spot.

Some of the inhabitants procure a very good maintenance by catching of birds; but it is impossible to give a just idea of the fatigue and danger with which the people search for the birds in the high and steep rocks, many of which are above two hundred fathoms perpendicular. These people, who are called birdmen, have two methods of catching them: they either climb up these perpendicular rocks, or are let down from the top by a strong and thick rope. When they climb up, they have a large pole of eleven or twelve ells in length, with an iron hook at the end. They who are underneath in a boat, or stand on a cliff, fasten this hook to the waistband of the man's breeches who climbs, by which means they help him up to the highest projection he can reach, and fix his feet upon. They then help up another to the same place; and when they are both up, give each his bird-pole, and long rope, which they tie at each end round their waist. The one then climbs up as high as he can; and where it is difficult the other, by putting his pole under his breech, pushes him up, till he gets to a good standing-place. The uppermost of the two then helps the other up to him with a rope; and thus they proceed till they get to the part where the birds build, and there they search for them.

As they have many dangerous places still to climb, one always seeks a convenient spot where he can stand secure by being able to hold himself fast, while the other is climbing about. If the latter should happen to slip, he is held up by the other, who stands firm; and when he has passed in safety those dangerous places, he fixes himself in the same manner, that he may enable the other to come safe to him; and then they clamber about after birds where they please. But sometimes accidents happen; for if one does not stand firm, or is too weak to support the other when

when he slips, they both fall and are killed; and every year some perish in this manner. On their thus reaching the places that are seldom visited, they find the birds so tame, that they may take them with their hands, they being unwilling to leave their young; but where they are wild, they throw a net over them in the rock, and entangle those that are flying, with a net fixed to the end of their poles. Thus they catch a vast number of fowls, and the boat keeping underneath them, they throw the dead birds into it, and soon fill the vessel.

If the weather continues favourable, and there be a great deal of game, the birdmen sometimes continue eight days together on the rocks; where they find holes or caverns in which they can securely take their repose. In this case they draw up provisions with lines, and boats are kept coming and going to carry away the game they have caught. As many of the rocks are so steep and dangerous, that they cannot possibly climb up them, they are then let down from above; when they have a strong rope, eighty or a hundred fathom long, and about three inches in thickness. One end of it the birdman fastens about his waist, and then drawing it between his legs, so that he can sit on it, he is let down with his bird-pole in his hand, by six men at top, who let the rope sink by degrees, but lay a piece of timber on the edge of the rock, for it to slide on, to prevent its being torn to pieces by the sharp edge of the stones. Another line is fastened round the man's waist, which he pulls to give signs when he would have them pull him up, let him lower, or keep him where he is. He is in great danger of the stones loosening by the rope, and falling upon him; he therefore wears a thick furred cap well lined, which secures him from the blows he may receive from small stones; but if large ones fall, he is in the greatest hazard of losing his life.

Thus do these poor men often expose themselves to the most imminent danger, merely to get a subsistence for their families. There are some indeed who say there is no hazard in it, after they are accustomed to it; but at first the rope turns round with them, till their heads are giddy, and they can do nothing to save themselves. They who have learnt the art, make a play of it; they put their feet against the rock throw themselves several fathoms out, and push themselves into what place they please. They even keep themselves out on the line in the air, and catch with their poles numbers of birds flying out and into their holes. The greatest art consists in throwing themselves out, so as to swing under the projection of a rock, where the birds gather together: here they fix their feet, loosen themselves from the rope, and fasten it to a stone, to prevent it swinging out of their reach. When a man has done this, he climbs about, and catches the birds either with his hands or the pole; and when he has killed as many as he thinks proper, he ties them together, fastens them to the small line, and, by a pull, gives a sign for those above to draw them up.

The birdman works all day in this manner; and when he wants to be drawn up, he either gives a signal to those above, or, with his belt full of birds, works himself up with his hands and feet. If there are not people enough to hold the rope, he fixes a post in the ground, fastens his rope to it, and slides down without any help; after which, he goes to work as before. In some places there are steep clefts of prodigious size lying under the land, and yet above two hundred yards above the water, which are likewise very difficult to be got at. They help one another down these clefts in the above manner; and taking a strong rope with them, fasten it here and there in the cleft where they can; and leave it all the summer; they will run up and down upon this, and take the birds very easily.

To the beholders, this bird-catching appears inconceivably dreadful and dangerous, from the vast height and excessive steepness of the rocks, many of which hang over the sea. It seems impossible for men to enter the hole under these projections, or to walk a hundred fathoms high on crags of rocks, where their toes can barely fix.

They eat part of these birds fresh, and part is hung up to dry for the winter season. These birds afford the inhabitants a good maintenance, partly from their feathers, which are plucked and sent to foreign parts, and partly from their flesh and eggs, and are sent to market, though their colours and sizes are different.

The people of Norway carry on a considerable trade, both to Denmark and foreign nations. They import wine, and many other articles of luxury; but their exports are much more numerous, consisting of matts, timber, deal boards, oak planks, copper wrought and unwrought, iron in bars and cast into cannon, pots, and stoves; lead

in small quantities; marble, mill-stones, salmon, herrings, cod, ling, lobsters, cow-hides, goat-skins; the furs of ermines, martens, beavers, foxes, wolves, bears, &c. down feathers, butter, tallow, train oil, tar, pitch, juniper and other berries, nuts, alum, salt, vitriol, and pot-ashes.

SECT. IV.

Treating of the Language, Laws, Religion, and Government of NORWAY; also of its Four Chief Governments, or Prefectships, and the principal Places in them; particularly of the Silver Mines of KONGSBERG, the remarkable Whirlpool of MOSKOEESTROM, &c.

THE Norwegian language, in most places, is the same with that of Iceland, which proves them to be of the same original; but the language differs but little from that of Denmark, in the civilized part of the country.

King Olave is said to have been the first legislator of this country, and to have instituted a law for the punishment of robbery, fraud, and assaults; king Christian IV. published a new body of laws for Norway, which were in force till the reign of Christian V. who caused a new digest to be drawn up, and these are the only laws now observed in the kingdom. This law-book was printed in one volume in quarto at Copenhagen, in 1687; the substance of it is taken from that of Denmark, with only a few necessary alterations on account of the different circumstances of the two kingdoms. Justice is administered here in several courts, from which appeals lie to the supreme court settled in the capital of the kingdom where the viceroy resides, who governs this state with an absolute power.

The Christian religion is said to have been planted here about the middle of the tenth century; and the reformation was established by the Danes; so that Lutheranism is almost the only religion in Norway, except in the province of Finmark, where are still no inconsiderable number of pagans; but no hardship, expence, or labour, is spared for their conversion. The first measures for the reformation of religion in Norway were taken in the year 1528, and were completed in 1537. In 1607 a new hierarchy or church government was established: in every see there is a bishop: the bishop of Christiana is the principal, and takes place of all the rest. Under the bishops are the provosts, the preachers, and the chaplains, or curates, with inferior church-officers. A parish usually contains more churches than one; when the parochial incumbent has often many souls under his care.

Norway is divided into four dioceses or general governments, each of which has its general governor, and under these are the prefects; and the office of both is the same as in Denmark. Next to the prefects, are the secretaries and the collectors, who levy the king's taxes, and pay them into the receiver's hands.

They have nine provincial courts, over which are the same number of judges: there are also inferior judges, each of whom, in conjunction with eight assistants, has the power of deciding causes within his district. Besides, in the four chief cities of Norway, viz. Christiana, Christianland, Bergen, and Drontheim, are presidents appointed by the king; and under these, as in all other towns, are collectors. There are likewise collectors of the toll, comptrollers over the farmers of the duties, and commissaries of provisions, in this part of the dominions of the king of Denmark.

Nature has divided the main land of this kingdom into two parts by the immense chain of mountains called Dofrefield and Langfield, which separates the western and northern parts, that lie near the sea, from the southern and eastern, or inland parts. Here it must be observed, that the highlands which lie to the south and east of these mountains are called Sondenfield or Southland; while that is called Nordenfield, or Northland, which lies north of Dofrefield, and west of Longfield towards the sea.

This country, according to the political division of it, consists of four general governments, two of which, namely, Christiana and Christianland, which lie on the south; and Bergen and Drontheim in the north part of the kingdom. The ecclesiastical division into four bishoprics, is agreeable to the civil; and the bishoprics are subdivided into provostships and parishes, as the general governments are subdivided into prefectures, and districts or fiels.

The king of Denmark receives annually a revenue of upwards

upwards of eight hundred thousand rix-dollars from Norway.

I. The largest and richest government in all Norway is that of Christiania, or Aggerhuus, in the south part of the kingdom. Its principal city is Christiania, which is said to be the best built city in the kingdom: it is regularly built, is of a considerable extent, and carries on a great trade. There the governor and bishop of Christiania reside, and here are held the general and provincial high courts of judicature. It has a work-house and two suburbs called Waterland and Peper-Vigen; through the first runs a river, which rises in Maridalen. The city stands in fifty-nine degrees fifty-minutes north latitude, and in ten degrees fifteen minutes east longitude. The land is mountainous and woody, but the valleys are tolerably fruitful, being watered by many lakes and rivulets, which pass through the country, and fall into the Baltick. Here are several sea-ports, particularly Heakeren, where the fishing-trade affords a pretty considerable income.

The town of Kongsberg, in this government, contains about eleven thousand souls, among whom are a congregation of Danes, and another of Germans. In the year 1686, a mint was set up in this town, and in 1689, the mine college was erected. Kongsberg is most remarkable for its silver mines, which are the richest in all Norway. These were discovered in 1623, upon which the town was immediately built, and peopled with German miners. In 1751, forty-one shafts and twelve veins were wrought in the four reviers of this mine, in which three thousand five hundred officers, artificers, and labourers are usually employed. The rich ore in this mine is found only in dispersed strata and interrupted veins. Even pure silver is sometimes dug out of it; and in 1647, some gold was found among the silver, of which king Christian IV. caused the famous Billen ducats to be coined, with this legend, *Vide Mira Domini*, "See the wonderful works of the Lord." In the year 1697, a vein of gold was discovered here, of which ducats were coined, which on one side had this inscription, *Christian V. D. G. Rex Dan. Norw. V. G.* The legend on the reverse was from the book of Job: *Von mitternacht kommt gold*: that is, "Out of the north cometh gold." Kongsberg, December 1, 1697.

Most of these mines are in a mountain between Kongsberg and the river Jordal; but it has been found that the silver ore is not, as was at first imagined, limited to that mountain, but extends its veins for some miles throughout the adjacent districts; which is proved by the new mines which are from time to time undertaken in several places, and most of them carried on very prosperously.

One of the most antient and rich of all the mines, named Old God's Blessing, has sometimes within a week yielded several hundred pounds weight of rich ore. This mine never fails to fill the beholder with amazement at its astonishing depth, which is no less than an hundred and eighty perpendicular fathoms; and the circumference at the bottom forms a clear of some hundred of fathoms. Here the sight of thirty or forty piles, burning on all sides in this gloomy cavern, and continually fed, in order to mollify the stone in the prosecution of the mines, seems, according to the common idea, an image of hell; and the swarms of miners, covered with soot, and bustling about in habits according to their several employments, may well pass for so many devils, especially when, at a signal that a mine is going to be sprung in this or that course, they roar aloud, *Berg-livet! Berg-livet! Take care of your lives!*

The celebrated town of Frederickshall is near the borders of Sweden, situated in latitude fifty-five degrees, twenty-six minutes, at the north of the river Tistedal, where it discharges itself into the Spinesund. This town was formerly called Halden, and was a mean place, under the jurisdiction of the magistracy of Frederickstadt; yet it made a very gallant defence against the Swedes in 1658 and in 1659, by means of a small intrenchment or rampart. It was afterwards strengthened with additional fortifications; and in 1660 sustained a third siege from the Swedes; and Charles Gustavus is by some thought to have received here the wound of which he died. Five years after, this town received a charter, with the privileges of a city.

In 1716 and 1718, the inhabitants again distinguished themselves by the vigorous defence they made against the attacks of the Swedes; and here, on the eleventh of December, 1718, Charles XII. of Sweden was shot in the trenches. King Frederick IV. ordered a pyramid twenty feet high to be erected on the spot where that hero fell. Its sides were decorated with military trophies, the arms of Sweden, and the king's name; and the top was surmounted

with a gilt crown. On four marble tables at the base, were one Latin and two Danish inscriptions in golden letters. But king Christian VI. in compliment to Sweden, ordered this pyramid to be taken down. The town itself is of no great strength; but on a high rock opposite to it, stands the strong fortress of Frederickstein, and there are other smaller forts near it. This city has several times been destroyed by fire.

The town of Frederickstadt was built in 1567 by Frederick II. who granted it a favourable charter, and removed the provincial court thither. It lies forty-four miles to the south of Frederickshall, and is governed by a town magistrate, and its chief trade is in timber. Frederickstadt was regularly fortified in 1655 by Frederick III. and new works have been since added to it; so that its strength by nature and art, and its convenient situation, render it the most important fortress in this country.

II. Christianland is situated in the most southern extremity of Norway, and is bounded on the north by the government of Christiania; and, on the east, south, and west, by the North sea. This province is fertile in corn, and has several rivers, one of which is the Mandel, which in one place has a bridge laid over it from one rock to another, thirty-six feet above the surface of the water. At a small distance from this bridge is a cataract, where a very uncommon method of fishing is practised; the fishermen go under the cataract, which forms an arch over their heads, to catch the salmon, at the extreme hazard of their lives, in a hole in the rock.

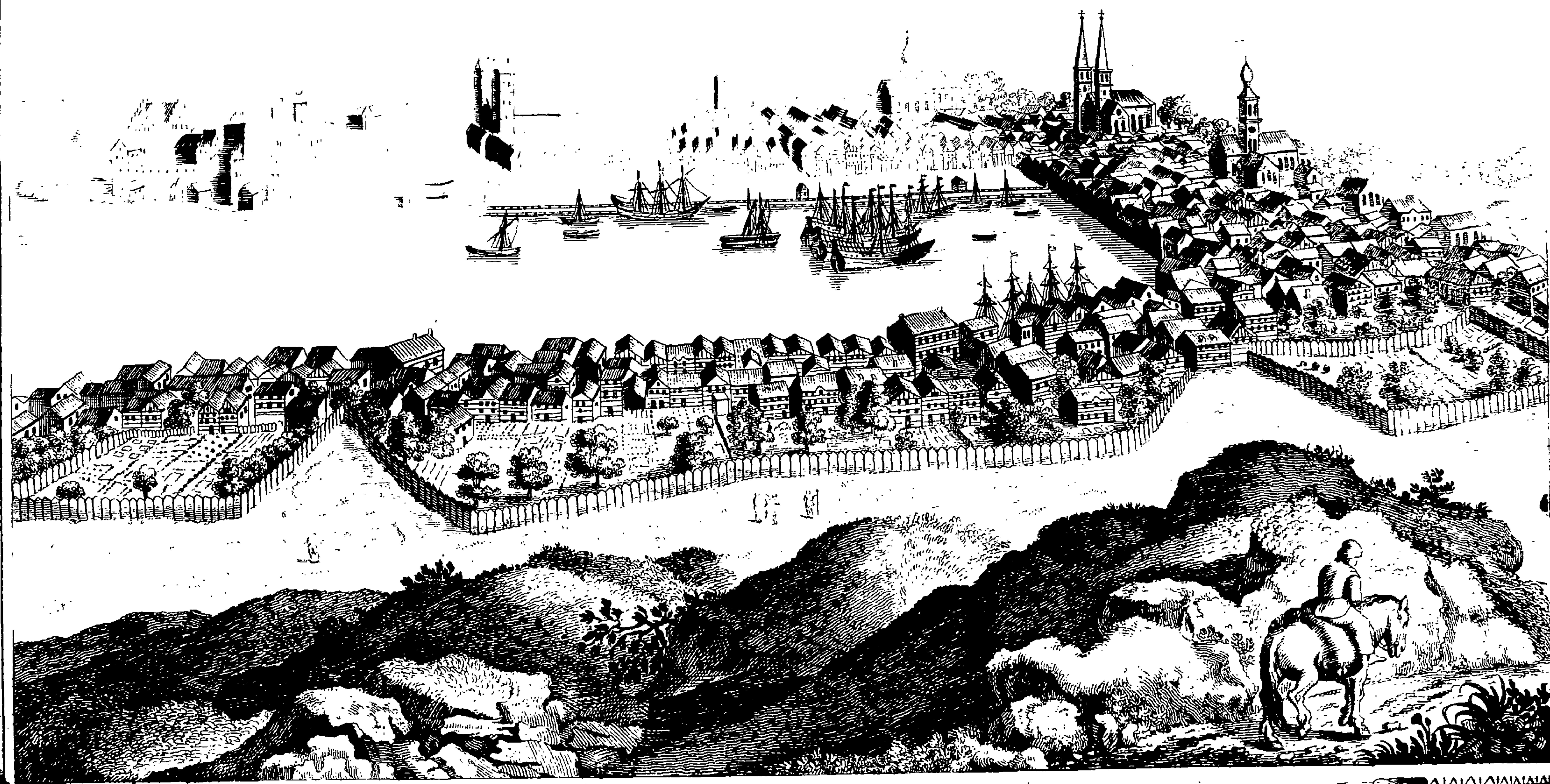
This government consists of four prefectures, five districts, and has two provincial courts. The principal city is Christianland, which is situated on the eastern coast, in the fifty-ninth degree three minutes north latitude, and is the residence of the bishop and the general governor, where is a cathedral and episcopal school. This city was built by Christian IV. between the year 1641 and 1643, and is thus called from its founder, and the great sande, or strand, on which it is built. It is of a square form, and the streets are broad, regular, and handsome. Its situation is very commodious, three sides of it being surrounded either with fresh or salt water, and on the fourth it has a communication with fine meadows and the mountains. In 1734 the church, with the greatest part of the city, was destroyed by fire.

Arndal, though a small town, is remarkable for its situation on a rock in the midst of the river Nid. It has a good wharf, and most of the houses stand on the acclivity of the rock, the rest being built on piles in the water. The streets are only formed of bridges of boats, by means of which the inhabitants go from house to house. The water is of sufficient depth for the largest ships to lie along side of the bridges. As the church stands high, and almost on the summit of the rock, there is an ascent to it from the houses by a great number of steps hewn out of the rock. The inhabitants make a good use of the commodious situation of this town for trade, by employing many ships, and dealing largely in timber.

III. Bergen is from two hundred and forty to three hundred miles in length. This government contains only the single prefecture of Bergenhuus, including seven districts, and the same number of provostships. This country is very populous, and is remarkable for its having seven marble quarries; but produces little corn.

The city of Bergen, which is the capital of this government, has the greatest trade in all Norway. It is situated in the sixty-first degree eleven minutes north latitude, in the midst of a valley, and built in a semicircular form, on the sides of a bay, called by the inhabitants Waag. It is well fortified by nature on the land side by lofty mountains, seven of which are remarkably high, while the defiles or passes between them are quite impassable to an enemy, and towards the sea the harbour is well defended by several fortifications. All the churches, public edifices, and most of the houses along the strand are built with stone. The number of inhabitants are computed at thirty thousand. This city formerly contained thirty churches and convents; but it has at present only four parish-churches, three of which are Danish, and one German, with a church in the large hospital of St. Jurgen, and a small chapel in St. James's church-yard. The castle of Bergen is a noble structure.

The large cathedral school was founded in 1554, by bishop Petrus, who also endowed it, and, by the liberality of king Frederick II. and others, twelve scholars are maintained and educated in it. The navigation school founded here, which once flourished greatly, is now fallen to decay. The *Seminarium Fredericianum* also deserves notice,



Perspective View of BERGEN, *the Capital of* Norway

notice, it being a noble foundation, where moral and natural philosophy, the mathematics, history, with the Latin and French languages, are taught. This city carries on a large trade in all kinds of fish, tallow, hides, and timber; and the returns are mostly made in corn and foreign commodities.

A range of islands extends from the north-east to the south-west of Drontheim, and between them and the continent runs a large bay called West Fiorden. Among the islands above-mentioned is a remarkable kind of current, or whirlpool, called the Moskoeſtrom, in the sixty-eighth degree of latitude, near the island of Moskoe, from which this whirlpool takes its name. Its impetuous roarings are heard at a great distance, and have no intermission, except for a quarter of an hour at the turn of high and low water, when its violence seems at a stand, and fishermen venture upon it with their boats: but this motion soon returns, and gradually increases till it forms a vortex, capable of absorbing whatever comes within its influence: this is supposed to be caused by the collision of the waves rising and falling at the flux and reflux, against a ridge of rocks and shelves, which confine the water, so that it precipitates like a cataract; and thus, as the higher the flood rises, the deeper must be the fall, so a whirlpool is the natural consequence.

At the time of flood, the stream runs up the country between the islands of Lafoden and Moskoe, with a boisterous rapidity; but the roar of its impetuous ebb to the sea is scarce equalled by the loudest and most dreadful cataracts, the noise being heard at several leagues distance. The whirlpool is then of such extent and depth, that if a ship comes within its attraction, it is inevitably absorbed, and dashed to pieces against the rocks at the bottom. But when the stream is most boisterous, and its fury heightened by a storm, it is dangerous to come within one Norway or six English miles of it; for that boats, ships, and yachts, have been drawn into it from a distance which they imagined secured them from its attraction. It frequently happens, that even whales coming too near the stream are overpowered by its violence, which they no sooner feel, than they fill the air with dreadful howlings during their fruitless struggles to disengage themselves. Even large firs and pine-trees, after being absorbed by the current, are thrown up again with their trunks so broken and torn, that they seem as if covered with bristles. A bear once attempting to swim to the island of Moskoe, in order to prey upon the sheep at pasture in the island, afforded the like spectacle as that of the whale did to the people; for the stream bore him down, while his hideous roarings reached the shore.

IV. Drontheim, Trontheim, or Dronthen, is the largest government of Norway. It lies along the coast of the North sea, being about five hundred miles in length, from south to north. It has the North sea on the west, the government of Wardhus on the north, that of Bergen on the south, and on the east it is separated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains. It extends from the sixty-first to the sixty-ninth degree of latitude: its greatest breadth, from east to west, is not above one hundred and twenty miles, and in many places it is much less. The country is mountainous, woody, cold, and barren; so that, though it be large, the towns are not very considerable. It is divided into two parts, namely, the government of Drontheim, properly so called, where is the city of that name, and seven small bailiwicks; and the sub-government of Salten, which contains seven other smaller districts, or valleys, on the sea-coast. This whole province was yielded to the Swedes in 1658, but the king of Denmark recovered it in 1660, by the treaty of Copenhagen. The valleys of Nomendall, Helligeland, or Hælgoland, Frosten, Hinder, Hero, and some others, belonged formerly to this province, but were given up to the Swedes in 1645, by the treaty of Bromsbroe, together with the province of Jemmland, or Jemterland. This whole country is very thinly peopled, and not cultivated but

along the sea-shore, till within twenty-five or thirty miles from it.

The most considerable town here is Drontheim, in Latin Drontheima, or Nidrosia, formerly the capital of Norway, is seated on the coast of the Northern ocean, on a little gulf at the mouth of the river Nider, from whence it was antiently called Nidrosia. It is about two hundred and twenty miles distant from Bergen to the north-east. It has a harbour, pretty well frequented by small vessels, though very incommodious for large ones, the entrance being obstructed by rocks. It was formerly the residence of the kings of Norway, but the town being only built with timber, was several times burnt down, and is very much decayed from its antient splendor. It has neither ditches nor fortifications, being only enclosed by a single wall. Its castle is not strong, and sustained but a few days siege, when the town was taken by the Swedes, in 1658. The Danes took it again that same year, the 21st of December, after a siege of two months and a half, as Puffendorf observes, in the life of Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden. It is the seat of an archbishop, the only one in Norway. The cathedral, which was dedicated to St. Olaus, was a stately building, and reckoned one of the most magnificent in the northern countries; but it lies now in ruins, being destroyed by fire in the year 1522.

This town has a pretty considerable trade, consisting in small masts, and fir-deals. They also ship off here a large quantity of copper, the mines of which are eighteen or twenty miles distant from this town, near the village of Steckby. At the distance of six miles from these mines there is a silver one, belonging to the king. The other merchandize exported from thence are, iron, tar, furs, ashes, goat-skins, &c. and they import, in exchange, spices, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheese, tobacco, coarse cloths, and a great many old rix-dollars. This is the seat of the governor of the province, who generally resides in the castle. The town is almost intirely surrounded by the sea and the river Nider, being joined to the continent only by a small neck of land; and it is encompassed by high mountains, which command it on every side. The country round about is very barren; and even wood is so scarce, that, a little beyond the town, the people are obliged to use fish-bones for fuel, and for several utensils.

To the governments above described, we may add the province of Wardhus, which is bounded, on the north and west, by the ocean; on the east, by the Russian Lapland, on the south, by Swedish Lapland; and, on the south-west, by the government of Drontheim. It is three hundred and ten miles in length, from east to west, and two hundred in breadth from north to south.

This province is divided into two parts; namely, 1. The western, or maritime part, which is called Finland; and, 2. The eastern part, which is called Norwegian or Danish Lapland. The town of Wardhus, from whence this province hath its name, is the seat of a governor, but consists only of a street of cottages inhabited by fishermen, with a castle belonging to it.

Bahus, though yielded to the Swedes in 1658, is yet reckoned a part of Norway, being its most southern province. It is ninety miles long, but not above twenty-five broad where widest, and only ten in some places. It hath West Gothland to the south, Dalia on the east, the government of Aggerhuus on the north, and the Categate on the west.

The principal places in this province are, 1. The strong castle of Bahus, built on a small island made by the river Nore-Elf, which there receives the Giotha-Elf, and both together are called Trolhetta. It is one hundred and sixteen miles distant from Christiana; was built in 1309 by Haquin the second king of Norway, and stands on a steep rock near the banks of the river. The kings of Denmark had fortified it after the modern fashion; but surrendered it to the Swedes in 1658, by the treaty of Roschiled. 2. Maellstrand, a strong town built on a rock in a kind of peninsula, about ten miles below Bahus. It is a place of great trade for fish, and is defended by a strong castle.

C H A P. III.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF
S W E D E N.

S E C T. I.

Containing the Situation, Extent and Boundaries, Climate, Lakes, Soil, Animals and other Particulars relative to the Natural History of SWEDEN.

THIS extensive kingdom lies between Denmark, Norway, and Russia, and stretches from fifty-five degrees forty minutes, to the sixty-ninth degree north latitude, and from the twelfth to the thirty-second degree of east longitude from London; being about two hundred and thirty Swedish, or one thousand four hundred English miles in length; its breadth is computed at one hundred and fifty Swedish miles, or nine hundred and twenty English, and its area at ten thousand square Swedish miles; but when proper abatements are made for vast lakes, inland seas or gulfs, sterile mountains, extensive rocky tracts, barren heaths, morasses, &c. the inhabited or cultivated parts are very small, in proportion to the whole dominion. It has Russia, the Baltick, and the gulf of Finland, on the east; the Baltick and the Sound, on the south; the stupendous and impassable mountains of Norway, on the west; and Norwegian Lapland, on the north.

Though the seasons of the year are regular in themselves, they do not altogether answer those of other climates, as a French ambassador observed, who, in raillery, said, there were in Sweden only nine months winter, and all the rest was summer: for as winter commonly begins very soon, so summer immediately succeeds it, and leaves little or no space to be called spring. The productions, therefore, of the earth ought to be, as they really are, more speedy in their growth than in more southern countries; the reason of which seems to be, that the oil and sulphur in the earth (as appears by the trees and minerals it produces), being bound up all the winter, are then on a sudden actuated by the heat of the sun, which almost continually shines, and thereby makes amends for its short stay, and brings to maturity the fruits proper to the climate. The heat in summer is so intense, that it often sets the woods on fire, which sometimes spreads itself many leagues, and can scarce be stopt, till it comes to some lakes, or very large plain. In the summer season the fields are cloathed with variety of flowers, and the whole country overspread with strawberries, raspberries, currants, and the like; which grow upon every rock. In their gardens melons are brought to good perfection in dry years, but apricots, peaches, and other wall-fruits, are almost as scarce as oranges. They have cherries of several sorts, and some tolerably good, which cannot be said of their apples, pears, and plums, which are neither common, nor well-tasted. All kinds of roots are in plenty, and contribute much to the nourishment of the poor people.

The sun, at the highest, is above the horizon of Stockholm eighteen hours and a half, and for some weeks makes a continual day: in winter the days are proportionably shorter, the sun being up five hours and a half; which defect is so well supplied as to lights, by the moon, the whiteness of the snow, and the clearness of the sky, that travelling by night is as usual as by day; and journies are begun in the evening, as frequently as in the morning. The want of the sun's heat is repaired by stoves within-doors, and warm furs abroad; instead of which, the meaner sort use sheep-skins, and other such defences; and are generally better provided with clothing, befitting their condition, and the climate they live in, than the common people in any part of Europe: though where any neglect

or failure happens, it usually proves fatal, and occasions the loss of noses, or other members, and sometimes of life; unless the usual remedy to expel the frost, when it has seized any part, be carefully applied, which is, to remain in the cold, and rub the part affected with snow, till the blood returns to its proper channel.

Their woods and vast forests overspread much of the country, and are, for the most part, of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and some oak; especially in the province of Bleking in South Gothland; the trees growing, in most places, so close together, and lying to rot, where they fall, that the woods are scarce passable. These afford a plentiful and cheap firing; and, being generally very strait and tall, are easily convertible into timber fit for all uses. So that the Dutch begin now to export, from hence, boards, and masts for their shipping, which prove as good as those of Norway. In the parts near the mines the woods are much destroyed, but that want is so well supplied from distant places, by the conveniency of rivers and winter-carriages that they have charcoal above six times as cheap as in England; though, indeed, it is not half so good.

The principal lakes in Sweden are, the Vetter, the Werner, and the Macler. The first is in Ostrogothia, or East-Gothland; and is remarkable for its foretelling of storms, by a continual thundering noise, the day before, in that quarter whence they arise; as also, for the sudden breaking of the ice upon it, which sometimes surprises travellers, and in half an hour it becomes navigable. It is extremely deep, in some places above three hundred fathoms, though no part of the Baltick sea exceeds fifty. It supplies the river Motala, which runs through Norkoping, where it has a fall of above thirty feet, and, some winters, is so choaked up with ice, that, for many hours, no water passes. The second is in Westrogothia, or West-Gothland, from which issues the river Elve, that, falling down a rock, near sixty feet, passes by Gottenburgh. The third empties itself at Stockholm, and furnishes one side of the town with fresh water, as the sea does the other with salt. These, and abundance of other lakes, whereof many, like ponds, have no vent, are not ill stored with variety of fish; as salmon, pikes, perch, tench, trout, eels, and many other sorts, unknown elsewhere; of which the most plentiful is the streamling, a fish less than a pilcher, taken in great quantities, salted in barrels, and distributed all over the country. Besides, the gulf of Finland, which separates Sweden from that province, abounds with seals, of which a considerable quantity of train-oil is made, and exported; and in the lakes of Finland are great quantities of pike, which they salt, dry, and sell at very cheap rates. These lakes are of great use for the conveniency of carriage, in summer, by boats; and, in winter, by sleds: and among them, and on the sea coast, are almost innumerable islands, of different sizes; whereof there are, in Sweden, above six thousand which are inhabited: the rest are either bare rocks, or covered with woods.

In places capable of cultivation, the soil is tolerably fruitful, though seldom above half a foot deep; and therefore more easily ploughed, as it frequently is, by one maid and an ox: and it is generally best where there is least of it, that is to say, in the little spaces between the rocks; and frequently the barren land, being enriched by the ashes of trees, burnt on the place where they grow, and the seed raked among the ashes, produces a plentiful crop, without further cultivation. This practice is so antient, that their writers derive the name of Sweden from a word in their language that expresses it; but the danger of destroy-

ing the woods, has of late, occasioned some laws to limit that custom. If the inhabitants were industrious, above what necessity forces them to, they might, at least, have corn sufficient of their own; but, as things are managed, they have not, nor can they subsist without great importations of all sorts of grain from Livonia (a country once belonging to Sweden), and other parts of Germany adjacent to the Baltick sea: and, notwithstanding these supplies, the poorest sort, in many places remote from traffic, are obliged to grind the bark of birch-trees to mix with their corn, and make bread, of which they have not always plenty.

In this, as in other northern countries, the cattle are generally of a very small size; neither can the breed be bettered by bringing in larger from abroad, which soon degenerates; because, in summer, the grass is much less nourishing than in the places from whence they came; and in winter they are usually half-starved for want of fodder of all kinds, which often falls so very short, that they are forced to unthatch their houses to keep a part of their cattle alive. Their sheep bear a very coarse wool, only fit to make clothing for the peasants. Their horses, especially those of Finland, are hardy, vigorous, strong, sure-footed, and nimble trotters, which is of great use to the people, because of the length of their winter, and the fitness of these horses for sleds, which is their only carriage in that season: and the soldiers pretend that, in war, their cavalry are not only able to resist, but even to break a body of the best German horse.

The farmers, in some parts of Sweden, when the winters are uncommonly severe, and the cattle almost starved, in order to nourish them, and cause the fodder to hold out during the season, make hay-tea; that is, they boil about a handful of hay in three gallons of water, and the drink thus made is so extremely nutritive, that it nourishes the cattle astonishingly, replenishes the udders of the cows with a prodigious quantity of milk, and makes one truss of fodder go as far as ten would otherwise do. If this experiment were tried, on similar occasions, in England, there is no room to doubt that it would prove equally beneficial.

Some parts of Sweden are much infested with lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, wild cats, otters, martens, weasels, &c. These are hunted either for their flesh, skins, or furs; the Swedish huntsmen, using guns, are excellent marksmen in general. Here are also plenty of all sorts of deer, elks and hares; the latter of which have this remarkable property, that in winter they become as white as snow.

Tame and wild fowls are very numerous in Sweden, and are very good. The keder, which is as large as an ordinary turkey, is much admired; as is also the orras, which resembles a partridge. In winter, the Swedish sportsmen amuse themselves in killing great numbers of blackbirds, thrushes, and sydenswans; the latter is a beautiful bird of the size of a field-fare, whose feathers are tipped with scarlet, and are supposed to come from Lapland in the hard season. They have but few pigeons, on account of the great number of eagles, hawks, vultures, and other large birds of prey which destroy them.

There are many excellent mines in Sweden, and in them their wealth chiefly consists. The principal of these is the great silver mine, into which the workmen are let down in baskets to the first floor, which is an hundred and five fathom under ground: the roof there is as high as a church, supported by vast arches of oak; thence the descent is by ladders, or baskets, to the lowest mine, above forty fathom. They have no records so antient as the first discovery either of this, or the copper mine, which must needs have been the work of many ages. The ore seldom yields above four per cent. and requires great pains to refine it; they are also at the charge of a water-mill to drain the mines, and have the benefit of another to draw up the ore. It yearly produces about twenty thousand crowns-worth of fine silver, of which the king has the pre-emption, paying one fourth less than the real value. This mine is at present much diminished in its value.

Their large copper mine is about eighty fathom deep, of great extent, but subject to damages by the falling-in of the roof; yet that is sometimes recompensed by the abundance of ore which the ruined pillars yield, though most commonly the loss, in that case is very great. The occasion of these falls is ascribed to the throwing the earth and stones, brought out of the mine, upon the ground over it; by which the pillars become overcharged, and give way: and the reason of this is said to be, that the profit arising, to those who are concerned, is so little, that they are not able to work it off as they ought, and to remove the rubbish to a greater distance: and unless the king abates a considerable

part of the profit arising to the crown from this mine, it is believed it will, in a few years, be at a stand, especially if the designs of making copper, which are on foot elsewhere, do take any tolerable effect. The copper yearly made out of this mine amounts to the value of about two hundred thousand pounds, of which the king has a fourth part, not by way of pre-emption, but in kind; besides which, he has, upon the remainder, a custom of twenty-five per cent. when it is exported unwrought. Some years ago a gentleman of Italy came into Sweden, with proposals to make copper a shorter and cheaper way than had till then been practised, so as to make that in five days which before required three weeks, and with one fifth part of the charcoal, and with fewer hands. The bargain was made; and his reward to be an hundred thousand crowns. The first essay he made succeeded to admiration; but when he came to work in earnest, and had got his new-invented ovens built to his mind, the miners, as he complained, picked out the very worst ore, and were otherwise so envious and untractable, that he failed of success, and lost his reward: nor was it without difficulty that he obtained leave to buy ore, and practise his invention at his own charge.

Here are great numbers of iron mines and forges, especially towards the mountainous parts, where they have the convenience of water-falls to turn their mills. From these, besides supplying the country, there is yearly exported iron, to the value of near three hundred thousand pounds. But of late years the number of these forges has been so much increased, that each endeavouring to under-sell others, the price has been much lowered. And since the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange of which iron was plentifully taken off; it is grown so cheap, that it is found necessary to lessen the number of forges. Neither has that contrivance had the effect intended; but, on the contrary, many more are likely to fall of themselves, because they cannot work but with loss, in which case, many thousands of poor people, whose livelihood depends upon these forges and mines, will be deprived of the means of subsistence.

As the account which Mr. Wraxall, a late traveller, has favoured us with, of his descent into the iron mines at Danmora, is both curious and interesting, we shall here transcribe it for the satisfaction of our readers: "We lay, says this gentleman, at a pretty village called Ostarby, and went about three miles, the next morning, to see the mines at Danmora. They are celebrated for producing the finest iron ore in Europe, the iron of which is exported into every country, and constitutes one of the most important sources of the national wealth and royal revenue. The ore is not dug, as in the mines of tin and coal which we have in England, but is torn up by powder. This operation is performed every day at noon, and is one of the most tremendous and awful that can be conceived.

"We arrived at the mouth of the great mine (which is near half an English mile in circumference) in time to be present at it. Soon after twelve, the explosion began: I cannot compare it to any thing so aptly as subterraneous thunder, or rather volleys of artillery discharged under ground. The stones are thrown up by the violence of the powder to a vast height above the surface of the earth; and the concussion is so great, as to shake the surrounding earth, or rock, on every side. I felt a pleasure, mingled with terror, as I hung over this vast and giddy hollow, to the bottom of which the eye in vain attempts to penetrate. As soon as the explosions were finished, I determined, however, to descend into the mine; which there is no way of doing, but in a large deep bucket, capable of containing three persons, and fastened to chains by a rope.

"The inspector, at whose house I had slept the preceding night, took no little pains to dissuade me from the resolution; and assured me, not only that the rope or chains sometimes broke, but that the snow and ice which lodged on the sides of the mines frequently tumbled in, and destroyed the workmen; nor could he warrant any absolute security from one or both of these accidents. Finding, however, that I was deaf to all his remonstrances, he provided me a clean bucket, and put two men into it, to accompany me. I wrapped myself, therefore, in my great coat, and stepped into the bucket. The two men followed, and we were let down.

"I am not ashamed to own, that when I found myself thus suspended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyss below me, to which I could see no termination, I shuddered with apprehension, and half repented my curiosity. This was however, only a momentary sensation; and before I had descended an hundred feet, I looked round on the scene with very tolerable composure. I was near nine minutes before

I could

I could reach the bottom, it being eighty fathom, or four hundred and eighty feet. The view of the mine, when I set my foot to the earth, was awful in the highest degree. Whether terror or pleasure formed the predominant feeling as I looked at it, is hard to say. The light of the day was very faintly admitted into these subterraneous caverns. In many places it was absolutely lost, and flambeaux supplied its place. I saw beams of wood across some parts, from one side of the rock to the other, where the miners sat employed in boring holes for the admission of powder, with as much unconcern as I would have felt in any ordinary employment, though the least dizziness, or even a failure in preserving their equilibrium, must have made them lose their seat, and dash them to pieces against the rugged surface of the rock beneath. A confinement for life, in these horrible iron dungeons, must surely, of all punishments which human subtilty has devised, be one of the most terrible.

"I remained three quarters of an hour in these gloomy and frightful caverns, and traversed every part of them which was accessible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole surface of the ground, and I found myself surrounded with the cold of the most rigorous winter, amid darkness and caves of iron. In one of these, which runs a considerable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themselves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little scanty subsistence produced from their miserable occupation. They rose with surprise at seeing so unexpected a guest among them; and I was not a little pleased to dry my feet at their fire, which were wet with treading on the melted ice.

"There are no less than one thousand three hundred of these men constantly employed in the mines, and their pay is only a common dollar, or three-pence English a day. They were first opened about 1580, under the reign of John III. but have been constantly worked only since the time of Christina.

"After having gratified my curiosity with a full view of these subterranean apartments, I made the signal for being drawn up; and can most seriously assure you, I felt so little terror while ascending, compared with that on letting down, that I am convinced in five or six times more I should have been perfectly indifferent to it, and could have solved a problem in mathematics, or composed a sonnet to my mistress, in the bucket, without any degree of fright or apprehension. So contemptible does danger or horror become, when familiarised by continual repetition, and so strong is the effect of custom on the human mind!"

Speaking of the manner in which the peasants manufacture the iron, the same person makes the following remarks: "I have visited six or seven forges on my journey, each of which constantly employs from four to fourteen hundred workmen only in iron. Wherever there is a country seat, you may be certain to see one of these factories; and no cyclops were ever more dextrous in working their materials. I have seen them stand close to, and hammer, in their coarse frocks of linen, a bar of ore, the heat and refulgence of which were almost insupportable to me at ten feet distance, and with the sparks of which they are covered from head to foot. I had the pleasure of viewing the whole process used to reduce the ore into iron, and must own it is very curious. They first roast it in the open air, for a considerable time: after which, it is thrown into a furnace, and, when reduced to fusion, is poured into a mould of sand about three yards in length. These pigs, as they are then denominated, are next put into a forge, heated to a prodigious degree; they break off a large piece with prickers when red-hot, and this is beat to a lesser size with hammers. It is put again into the fire and from thence intirely finished by being laid under an immense engine resembling a hammer, which is turned by water, and flattens the rude piece into a bar. Nothing can exceed the dexterity of the men who conduct this concluding part of the operation, as the eye is the sole guide, and it requires an exquisite nicety and precision.

SECT. II.

Treating of the several Grand Divisions of SWEDEN, their different Provinces, Islands, Towns, &c. particularly of SWEDEN, properly so called.

THE kingdom of Sweden has always been considered, by geographers, as divided into seven provinces: namely, Sweden Proper, Gothland, Livonia, Ingria,

Finland, Swedish Lapland, and the Swedish islands in the Baltick; but, as we observed, in our description of Russia, Livonia and Ingria at present appertain to that empire, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and afterwards, by posterior treaties, ceded to the Russians.

Those provinces which at present remain in the possession of the Swedes, are divided in the following manner:

Sweden Proper contains, Uplandia, Sudermania, Westmania, Nericia, Gestricia, Helsingia, Dalecarlia, Medelpadia, Angermania, Iniptia, and West Bothnia.

Gothland, or Gothia, contains East Gothland, West Gothland, and South Gothland.

Finland contains Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kenholm, Savolaxia, Tavastia, and Cajunia.

Swedish Lapland contains, Augermanice Lapmark, Uma Lapmark, Pitha Lapmark, Lula Lapmark: Torno Lapmark, Kima Lapmark. As Lapland is subject to Sweden, Russia, and Denmark, we shall therefore treat of it distinctly after the last-mentioned.

The Swedish islands are, Gothland, Oeland, Oesel, Dago, Aland, Hagland, and Rugen.

Sweden Proper is bounded on the north by Lapland; on the south by Gothland; on the east by the gulf of Bothnia; and the mountains part it on the west from Norway; extending seven hundred and ten miles from south to north, and about two hundred and twenty-five from east to west, though in many places it is much narrower. The country is fruitful though mountainous in some parts; abounds with rich mines of copper, and affords conveniency of water and fuel for working them. It is divided, as we have already observed, into eleven parts; which are as follow:

Upland, in Latin Uplandia, is surrounded on the north-east and east by the Baltick sea; on the south it has part of the same sea, and part of Sudermania, from which it is separated by the lake of Maeler; on the west it is bounded by Westmania, and on the north-west by Gestricia, from which the river Dala parts it. It extends about seventy-five miles from north to south, and about sixty-five from east to west. Here are many mines of iron and lead, and some of silver. The country is very fruitful, and produces, amongst others, excellent wheat. The most considerable cities and towns here, are as follow:

The city of Stockholm, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the residence of the king, had its name from its situation, and the great quantity of timber used in building it; Stock signifying timber, and Holm an island. It stands two hundred and eighty miles north-east from Copenhagen, two hundred and twenty-four from Gottenburg, three hundred and forty-two from Wyburg, three hundred and eighty-seven west from Petersburg, four hundred and sixty-five from Warsaw, six hundred and sixty north from Vienna, eight hundred and forty from Paris, and seven hundred and ninety north-east from London. It is built upon piles, in several little islands which lie near one another. It takes up at present six of those islands, together with the southern and northern suburbs; the one in the peninsula of Toren, and the other in Athundria. It is commonly divided into four parts, which are South-Malm, and North-Malm, the two suburbs, between which the city stands in an island; the fourth part is called Garceland: these four make together one of the greatest towns in Europe, with regard to the number of houses. The isle, within which the greatest part of Stockholm is inclosed, is surrounded by two arms of a river, which run with great force out of the lake Maeler: over each of these arms there is a wooden bridge. There are some other islands separated from the city but by small canals. From the city there is a prospect, on one side over the lake, and on the other over the sea, which here forms a gulf, which running between several rocks, seems as if it were another lake. The water is so little brackish before Stockholm, that it might be drank; which is owing to the great quantity of fresh water which runs from the lake into the sea.

This place, about three hundred years ago, was only a bare island, with two or three cottages for fishers; but upon the building of a castle there, to stop the inroads of the Russians, and the translation of the court thither, it grew by degrees to surpass the other more ancient cities, and is now supposed to be as populous as Bristol. The castle, which is covered with copper, is a place of no strength or beauty, but of great use; for it is a spacious building where the court lodges, and which also furnishes room for most of the great officers, the national court of justice, the colleges of war, chancery, treasury, reduction, liquidation,



View of STOCKHOLM, the Capital of Sweden.

liquidation, commerce, execution: here is also an armoury, chapel, library, the public records, &c. It lodges very few of the inferior officers and servants of the court; they, together with the foot-guards, being quartered upon the burghers, at their landlord's charge for fire, candles, and lodging.

There are nine large churches in this city, built with bricks, and covered with copper; and three or four wooden chapels. The palace of the nobility, which is the place of their assembly at the convention of the states, and the depository of their privileges, titles, and such other records as concern their body, is a very stately pile, and one of the finest in the kingdom: it is, as it were, but one large pavilion, adorned on the outside with marble figures and columns, and within with pictures and sculptures; especially in two large halls, where the nobility meet. Next to this palace, is that of the lord high chancellor; and a little farther are two other palaces belonging to noblemen. These four palaces stand on the banks of the lake, are built after the same manner of architecture, and are all covered with copper. The bank, built at the city's charge, is also a noble edifice, and, together with several magnificent houses of the nobility, all covered with copper, afford a handsome prospect.

The burghers' houses are chiefly built with brick, except in the suburbs, where they are of timber, and thereby subject to the danger of fire, which commonly, when it gets a-head, destroys all before it in the quarter where it happens. To repair which misfortune, they sometimes send the dimensions of the house they intend to build, into Finland; where the walls, and several separations, are built of pieces of timber laid one upon another, and joined at the corners; and afterwards marked, taken down and sent by water to Stockholm, there to be set up and finished; and, when they are kept in good repair, they will last thirty or forty years; and are warmer, cleaner, and more healthful than those of either brick or stone. To prevent the danger of fire, the city is divided into twelve wards; and in each of these there is a master, and four assistants; who, upon notice of any fire, are immediately to repair to it; as also all porters and labourers, who must range themselves under the master of their respective ward. There is, besides, a fire-watch by night, who walk about only for that purpose; and in each church-steeple a watch is kept, who tolls a bell upon the first appearance of fire.

This city is governed by the great stadtholder, who is also a privy-counsellor. He sits once a week in the town-house, and presides also in the college of execution, assisted by an under-stadtholder, and a bailiff of the cattle. Next to him are the four burgomasters; one for justice, another for trade, the third for the policy of the city, and the fourth has the inspection over all public and private buildings, and determines such cases as arise on that account: with them the counsellors of the city always sit, and give their votes, the majority of which concludes. Their number is uncertain, but usually about twenty, most merchants and shop-keepers, or such as have served the king in some inferior employments. Besides their salary, they have an immunity from such impositions as are laid on the inhabitants to support the government of the city; which pays all its officers and servants, maintains a guard of three hundred men, and defrays the charge of all public buildings and repairs.

To support the expence, besides a duty belonging to the city, of goods imported and exported (which is about four per cent, of the customs paid to the king, and amounts to about five thousand pounds per annum), the magistrates impose a yearly tax on the burghers; in which they are assisted by a common-council of forty-eight (which chuses its own members), and meet every spring, to proportion the payments for the ensuing year. On the traders they usually impose forty, fifty, or sixty pounds sterling; and upon others of a meaner condition, as shoemakers, tailors, &c. five or six pounds, and on no housekeeper less than fifteen shillings; besides quartering the guards, inferior officers and servants of the court, with other lesser charges; which altogether would be thought a great burden, even in richer countries: neither is it otherwise esteemed by the inhabitants of this city, who can scarce be kept in heart by the privileges they enjoy, as well in customs as in the trade of the place; which must needs pass through their hands: for the natives of other parts of the kingdom, as all foreigners, are obliged to deal only with the burghers; except those of the gentry, who make iron; they having the privilege to sell it to strangers as soon as it is manufactured.

Stockholm is in a manner the staple of Sweden; to which most of the goods of their own growth, as iron, copper, wire, pitch, tar, masts, deals, &c. are brought to be exported. The greatest part of the commodities imported from abroad come to this port, where there is a haven capable to receive one thousand sail of ships, and has a bridge or key near an English mile long, to which the greatest vessels may lie with their broad-sides. The only inconvenience is, that it is ten miles from the sea, the river very crooked, and no tides. It opens into the Baltick, but is of dangerous access, by reason of the rocks; within, it is one of the most commodious in Europe; for the ships of the largest size lie close to the key, where they are so secure from the wind, that they need neither anchors nor cables to hold them. Its entrance is defended by two forts.

The city of Upsal stands on the banks of the river Sal, or Sala, which falls into the lake of Ekolon, and is forty-two miles distant from Stockholm towards the north-west. It is a very ancient city, formerly the capital of the north, and the seat of the king. It is divided into two parts by the river, which is here pretty large, and is so hard frozen up in February, that a fair is yearly kept there upon the ice in that month. The town is large, but without any considerable fortifications. Here is to be seen the finest church in the whole kingdom; namely, the cathedral. It is all covered with copper, and adorned with several tombs, especially those of many kings. In the chapel behind the altar, stands the monument of king Gustavus in marble, between the statues of his two wives, who lie also buried here. In another chapel is the tomb of king John's wife, who was mother to Sigismund III. king of Poland: it is made of white marble. Above the city, on a steep hill, there is a beautiful castle, which is fortified. It is very large, built after the Italian manner, and has a noble prospect over the city, which it commands.

This city was at first a bishop's see, and was created into an archbishopric by pope Alexander III. at the request of king Charles, successor to St. Erick. Stephen, who died in the year 1158, was the first archbishop of this see; and John Magnus, who, at the reformation, refused to admit the Lutheran confession, and removed to Rome, was the twenty-sixth. Since his time there have been only protestant archbishops, who do not live with the same pomp and magnificence as the Roman catholic prelates used to do; for the latter never appeared in public without a retinue of four or five hundred people on horseback to attend them.

In the university of Upsal there is a chancellor, who is always a great minister of state; a vice-chancellor, always the archbishop; a rector, chosen out of the professors, of whom there are about twenty that have each one hundred and twenty pounds a year salary. The ordinary number of students is about seven or eight hundred, fifty of which are maintained by the king, and some few others were formerly by persons of quality. The rest, that cannot subsist of themselves, spend the vacation in gathering the charities of the diocese they belong to, which is commonly given them in corn, butter, dried fish or flesh, &c. upon which they subsist at the university the rest of the year. They do not live collegiately, but in private houses, wear no gowns, nor observe any other discipline than what they are led to by their own necessity or disposition.

The town of Engkoping is a place of considerable trade: it stands about twenty-five miles from Stockholm, to the westward, and twenty-four from Upsal to the south, on the lake Maeler.

Sudermania is the next division of Sweden Proper: it is separated from Upland, on the north by the lake Maeler; bounded, on the south, by East Gothland; on the west by Nericia; and by the Baltick, on the east. It is a populous country, extending sixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth; fruitful in corn, wines, and timber, of which last many ships are built in this province. It is divided into Sudermania Proper, and the island of Feren, formed by the lake Maeler and Rekarne. It produces abundance of corn, and has several mines.

The capital city of this province, called Nicoping, stands on the Baltick, forty-eight miles to the southward of Stockholm. It has a good harbour, and a castle, in which the dukes of Sudermania used to reside, and is a place of some trade.

The small town of Strengthness is situated on the south side of the lake Maeler, and is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the metropolitan of Upsal. Opposite to the town, an annual fair is held upon the ice. Some Gothic inscriptions in the Runic character evince the antiquity of the

the place. Charles IX. lies buried in the cathedral, which is an antient Gothic edifice.

About forty miles from Stockholm is situated the town of Trosa, or Trefen, which has a very good harbour.

Westmania, Westermania, or Westmanland, is a very barren province; its greatest length, from south-east, to north-west, is about ninety miles, and it is about three-score miles in breadth from north to south. The country is barren, but was formerly considerable by its silver mines.

The capital of Westmania is Arosen: it is situated on the side of the lake Macler, between Koping and Engkoping, about thirty-five miles from Stockholm. The hereditary convention was settled here in the year 1544, by which the succession to the crown of Sweden was settled in the family of Gustavus Vasa. This city is a bishop's see, and well defended by a strong castle.

The town of Arbogen is situated on the little river Arbon, which falls into the lake Macler; it is about sixty miles to the westward of Stockholm. Koping is a small town between Arosen and Arbogen, and there are some tolerable mines of iron and copper in its neighbourhood. Nora is another small town at the distance of twenty-eight miles to the westward of Arbogen. Lindesås is situated to the eastward of the Lindenbergs mines: it is an inconsiderable place, and built near a rivulet, which disembogues itself into the lake Macler.

Nericia is bounded on the east, by Sudermania; on the north by Westmania; on the south by East Gothland; and on the west by part of West Gothland, and the northern extremity of the lake Vetter, or Veter. This province contains several lakes and rivers, of which the river Trosa separates the country into two parts, from west to east. Silver mines were formerly worked in this province, but at present it produces only iron, sulphur, and allum. The chief places here, and which are not very considerable, are Arebro, Hellsmerberg, Åkerscind, and Glanshamme.

Gestrícia is situated between Dalecarlia, the Bothnian gulf, and the rivers Tynnea and Dala. This province contains three towns, namely, Gevalia, Borna, and Corperberget: the former, being at the mouth of the river Hafunda, which forms a gulf that serves as a good harbour; carries on a considerable trade, but the two latter contain nothing very remarkable.

Helsingia is a very extensive province, being bounded on the north by Jemptia and Medolpadia; on the west and south-west by Dalecarlia; on the south by Gestrícia; and on the east by the Bothnian gulf. The inhabitants employ themselves principally in fishing and hunting: the country is mountainous and woody. Hudwicksfeld is the capital of this province, and is situated near the Bothnian gulf: rosin, corn, timber, and hides, are its principal commodities, in which it carries on a considerable traffic.

The town of Soderhamn has a good haven belonging to it, formed by the mouth of the river Luispa; the other towns, viz. Hien, Swegh, Korbole, Lufdal, and Alta, are of very little importance.

Dalecarlia, or Dalecarlia, is bounded on the west and north by the mountains of Norway; on the east by Helsingia and Gestrícia; and, on the west by Westermania and Westmanland. This province is one hundred and sixty-five miles in length, and one hundred in breadth: it is subdivided into what are called three vallies; yet though it is so extensive, it contains only a few very inconsiderable villages. The mountains abound with iron and copper, and some of the mines are extremely deep. It hath been frequently observed, that the greatest number of the revolutions in Sweden have originated in this province; on which account the inhabitants have been characterized as more courageous, bold, and ferocious than any of the Swedes, as well as possessed of a more liberal spirit of independency.

The principal villages are, 1. Idra, on the river Elsinam, one of the springs of the Dala, or Dalecarlia, which runs into the Silian lake. This town is one hundred and twenty-six miles distant from Hudwicksfeld to the west. 2. Lima is thirty-six miles from Idra to the south; and 3. Hedemora, on the river Dala, near the borders of Westermania, is forty-two miles distant from Upsal.

Medolpadia is a very mountainous country, and full of forests; it has the gulf of Bothnia on the east, Angermania on the north, Jempterland on the north-west, and Helsingia on the south-west. It is watered by three rivers, the most northern of which is called Indal, and runs through the whole province lengthways. The most meridional one is named Nisarund.

The third, which runs betwixt these two, is the smallest. Besides these, there is a rivulet called Stammaing-Back, which waters the southern borders of this province. The sea-coast here is about forty miles long, and full of rocks, to the south of Sundswald, the capital of this province, at the mouth of the middle river, with a pretty good harbour. Other places of some note are, Hasio, a sea-port town; at the mouth of the river Indal, over-against which lies the island of Alvon. Nirunda, also a sea-port town on the Nisarund. Trop and Tuna stand higher up on the same river. Tors, Indal, and Carlobec, on the river Indal. Anas, Sion, and Guarp, lie on the same coast.

Angermania, or Angermanland, is bounded on the north by West Bothnia and Lapland; on the east, by the gulf of Bothnia; on the south by Medolpadia; and, on the west by Jempterland. It is above ninety miles in length, and near as many in breadth. The river Angerman-Flodt runs through it. But it is a mountainous and rocky country, full of rocks and forests; so that there are here very few villages, and but one town of some note, which is Hernosand, on the Bothnick gulf, where it has a pretty good harbour, which affords it some trade. It lies about seventy miles from Hudwicksfeld to the north. Natra, in the same province, stands on a bay of the same gulf, forty-five miles distant from Hernosand to the north.

Jemptia, Inipdia, or Jempterland, has Lapland on the north; Angermania on the east; Medolpadia, Helsingia, and Dalecarlia, on the south; and the high mountains of Norway on the west. It is watered by two pretty considerable rivers; namely, the Indal, which forms in the middle of this province a large lake, and runs into Medolpadia, and the Hamerdal, which runs from north-west to south-east, and enters into Angermania. Here are no cities, but only a few villages and hamlets; the most considerable of which are Refsund, a fortress sixty-six miles distant from Hernosand towards the west. Lidh, or Lida, reckoned the chief place of this province, stands about twenty miles north of Refsund.

West Bothnia, thus called to distinguish it from Cajania, which lies on the other side of the gulf, and is sometimes called East Bothnia, lies along the northern part of the gulf, thence called the Bothnick gulf, which bounds it on the east: it has Angermania on the south, and is surrounded by Swedish Lapland on the west and north. That part of this province which lies along the coast, is pretty well peopled, and has many villages, but few towns of any note. The country is well watered by several rivers which arise from the lakes in Lapland. The chief of these rivers going from south to north are, Uma, Skellefta, Pitha, Lula, Rana, Torno, and Rimi; the last of which, together with the gulf, divide West from East Bothnia.

The chief towns here are, Uma, on the gulf, at the mouth of the river of that name, about ninety-six miles from Hernosand to the north-east. Pitha, at the mouth of the river of that name, about eighty miles north from Uma. Lula, also at the mouth of a river of that name, eighteen miles from Pitha to the north. Torno, at the mouth of the river thus called, fifty-four miles distant from Lula to the north-east, stands at the bottom of the gulf of Bothnia, near the borders of Lapland. It is a place of some trade, and has a good harbour.

SECT. III.

Describing the Second Grand Division of SWEDEN called GOTHLAND.

GOTHLAND, or Gothia, is a large fruitful country, and the most southern of all Sweden: it comprises East Gothland, West Gothland, and South Gothland.

The first of these, called East Gothland Proper, includes the country properly so called Smaland, and the island of Oeland. It is a fertile, open, flat country, producing corn, cattle, fowl, venison, fish, &c. and is bounded on the north by Sudermania; on the east by the Baltick; on the west by the lake Vetter, or Veter; and on the south by Smaland.

Norkoping is the chief town. It stands about seventy miles to the southward of Stockholm, on the bank of a stream which runs from the lake Vetter to the gulf of Brawiken. The town is populous, large, and hath considerable commerce. It is likewise celebrated for a salmon fishery, by which many people are maintained.

The town of Sudercoping carries on some trade; it stands on a branch of the sea, about sixteen miles from the Baltick; is unfortified; but has been remarkable for some curious

curious crystal stones which have been found in the neighbouring places.

Stegeburg stands ten miles to the eastward of Sudercooping: it is a small town, has some commerce, and a tolerable harbour.

The town of Wastena, or Vadstan, is situated on the eastern bank of the lake Vetter, at twenty-five miles distance from, and is only remarkable for the ruins of, an ancient royal palace.

The town of Smaland is situated between East Gothland, the Baltick, Bleking, and Halland. It is seventy miles in length, and about seventy-five in breadth, and abounds in cattle, wood, iron, copper, lead, and other useful articles.

Calmar, which is the capital of this province, is a considerable city, situated on a strait of the Baltick formed by the isle of Oeland, which lies over-against it. That strait is called from thence Calmar Sund. This city is one hundred and sixty miles distant from Stockholm towards the south. It is divided into the Old and New town: Old Calmar is famous by a deed executed there in the year 1393, by which the three northern crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were settled on the head of queen Margaret. This is called in history the union of Calmar. Erick, Margaret's successor, founded thirteen prebends here, and gave a decree, by which he put the church of Calmar among the collegiate ones. After the division of the crowns, which the fatal union of Calmar had united, this city became a frontier town, with regard of the Danes, who were in possession of Schonen. It was often taken, retaken, and plundered; and, to complete its ruin, it was burnt down to the ground in the year 1547, nothing escaped the fire but the church, and about threescore houses. Soon after this misfortune, the new city was built at a musquet-shot's distance from the old town, in a little island called Owarnholm.

This new city is large, the streets are broad and strait, and houses well built; but the town is not populous. The new fortifications consist only of thick walls built with large pebble stones taken out of the sea, and a few ramparts, built only with sand, and therefore supported by another wall, which the sea surrounds almost on all sides, except the gate. The situation of this city renders it very strong, all the avenues to it being full of marshes, or cut off by water from the sea, which abounds here with rocks, between which there are, as it were, so many abysses, that it is impossible to approach the place either in boats, on horseback, or on foot. On the sea side there is a long mole, built with stone; along which boats and ships ride secure. This mole is defended by a fortress called Grimskar, built at about fifty paces from it, on a rock surrounded by the sea, and where a garrison is constantly kept. Behind the old town stands the castle, which is of a very difficult access, having on one side the sea, which is full of rocks; and on the other good ramparts, large bastions, and ditches full of water. This city is at present the residence a superintendant for the government of the clergy, who is honoured with a place in the public consistory of the kingdom.

About seventy miles distant from Calmar towards the north-west, stands Wetterwick, a sea-port town of good trade on the Baltick.

On the banks of the lake Salen, and forty-five miles distant from Calmar, towards the north-west, is Wexio, a bishop's see, where some of the first planters of Christianity lie buried; and the same number of miles to the west, and eighteen from the lake Vetter to the east, the town of Ekelsio is situated.

The town of Jonkioping is situated on a bank of the lake Vetter, about sixty miles north-west of Calmar. It is without walls or ditches, but defended by a citadel, which is surrounded by ramparts. It is rather a brisk place, as the lake on which it stands affords it some trade. The ingenious Mr. Wraxall, a very late traveller into the northern parts of Europe, has favoured us with a very interesting and curious account of his journey from Helsingberg (the first town belonging to the Swedish dominions on the side of Denmark) to this place; from which we shall, for the satisfaction of our readers, transcribe some of the most material passages: his letter is dated from Jonkioping, May 18, 1774.

He thus expresses himself: "I crossed the celebrated passage of the Sound, though it blew very fresh. We were over in little more than half an hour. At Helsingberg, where I entered the Swedish dominions, I had the pleasure of viewing the beautiful landscape reversed which I had seen the preceding evening from the island of Zealand. Which

of the two is the most charming, I leave connoisseurs to determine. I drove twenty miles in the afternoon; and was then obliged, by the approach of night, and the want of horses, to stop at a miserable little inn, or rather cabin, where I could procure nothing besides milk: I lay down five hours in my cloaths, and then got into the carriage at three o'clock in the morning. Had I understood properly the manner of travelling in this country, which is, to send a peasant forward from every post-house, to procure horses in readiness, I should have doubtless made a considerable progress in my way; but as I neglected this necessary step, I was obliged to wait at every stage an hour or two, while the horses were brought from the neighbouring villages. I was forced to spend this night in a more desolate and dirty hovel than the first, where I wrapped myself up in my great coat, and slept upon a table. In the morning, when I continued my journey, the whole aspect of nature was changed. The snow lay upon the ground two feet deep, and the winter seemed to have renewed its empire over these inhospitable plains, from whence the smiling month of May cannot banish him.

"In the hope of reaching Jonkioping at night, I sat out, however, in defiance of the inclemency of the weather, which, from having been very warm, was become in a few hours as cold and piercing as our Decembers. The drivers seemed totally unaffected by this sudden alteration, which did not produce any in their dress or cloathing; and the peasants, both men and women, were all barefooted as before. The snow, however, conspiring with the want of horses, prevented me from reaching Jonkioping; and I staid all night at a house, which for horror of situation I never remember paralleled. It is quite detached from any village or hamlet, and the spot on which it stands is a bare rock, destitute of any covering or earth, and surrounded on every side by the deepest woods it is possible to conceive, and in which I had not seen one human creature for two leagues before my arrival. Yet, in this situation, fatigue made me sleep very sound, and my servant by me, till three in the morning, when, with the return of day I entered my carriage, and left this most melancholy and wretched habitation.

"The next morning, about ten o'clock, I arrived at Jonkioping, and gladly enjoyed a few hours of relaxation, after so many pleasing occurrences. It is difficult to give a picture of the country through which I passed from Helsingberg, the colours of which you will not imagine are heightened by fancy or invention. The first twenty miles exhibited some few marks of cultivation and agriculture; and though there was not one collection of huts or houses, which could be denominated a village, yet scattered cottages, and a little ploughed land, amidst an immense waste, informed the passenger that it was not totally unoccupied or unpeopled. But as I advanced farther into the province of Scania, and afterwards into that of Smaland, even these faint traces of human residence vanished. Groves of fir or aspen covered the country; and in the course of sixty miles, I can safely assure you I saw not an hundred people, and not ten hamlets; but there are not any villages. I have driven from one stage to another, of twelve or fourteen English miles, without meeting or seeing a single person, though, in hopes of discerning the countenances of man, I impatiently cast my eyes around on every side.

"The firs on either side the road, in many places, formed avenues as noble as those which are often planted at the entrance to palaces, or noblemens seats; and through the whole was spread a kind of rude and gloomy magnificence, which, superadded to their silence and loneliness, very strongly affected the mind. Even the birds seem to have abandoned these dreary forests; and I heard or saw none, except wood-peckers, and now-and-then a cuckoo. I enquired if they did not afford refuge to wolves or bears, as these animals are commonly found in those places and countries which want population; but the peasants assured me, that the former were only in small numbers, and rarely seen; and that there are not any bears.

"With respect to the peasants, they are civil and humble to obsequiousness, grateful for the third part of a half-penny, and infinitely less uncivilized and barbarous than one would be tempted to suppose, from the appearance of every thing around them. Had I not taken the precaution to carry wine and provisions with me, I must have been almost starved in my journey through these miserable provinces, where the peasants are strangers to every kind of aliment, except bread, and salt pork or fish. It is indeed a question whether the former of these deserves the name of bread, as it is a compound of rye and oats; among which

which they mingle, in times of dearth and famine, a kind of flour made of the internal bark of trees raised: it is of a colour approaching to black, and of a very disagreeable taste.

"The servant that attended me, who is a German, and has wandered over half Europe in various services, was quite tired with four days of such miserable accommodation, and exclaimed, in a rapture, at the sight of this place, that it was, "*le paradis terrestre*." It is indeed, of itself, a very neat country town, and most delightfully situated on the lake Vetter. I am just returned from looking down from the top of the church on it, and the surrounding meadows, which are all cultivated, and after the deserts I have passed, are peculiarly grateful to the eye. The lake itself, which is near an hundred English miles in length, rather resembles the sea, than a piece of inland water, and extends, far beyond the view, to the north."

We shall give an account of Oeland, being an island, when we come to treat of the isles belonging to Sweden.

The province of West-Gothland is very extensive, having Smaland on the south-east, Halland on the south-west; the river Gothelba on the north-west, by which it is parted from the government of Bahus, and the province of Dalia; on the north, it has the lake Wenner, and part of Vermeland; and on the east, it has part of Nericia, and the lake Vetter, which divides it from East-Gothland Proper. It is watered by a great many lakes and rivers, and abounds with excellent pastures, where great numbers of cattle are bred, and by the sale of which the country is enriched.

In this province are several considerable towns, the principal of which is Gottenburg, which stands on the Schager Rack, or Categate, on the southern branch of the river Gothelba, which there falls into the sea, and forms the harbour of this city. It is one hundred and seventy miles distant from Calmar towards the west, and two hundred and twenty-five from Stockholm to the south-west. It is no ancient town, being built in the year 1607, under the reign of king Charles IX. His successors have granted it great privileges, by which it is become a considerable mart-town. The Dutch drive a large trade here. In the war of 1644, the Danes exerted their utmost efforts to ruin this city, but to no purpose; and it has been so well fortified since, that it is now one of the strongest maritime towns in the kingdom.

The Swedes have of late years established an East-India company at Gottenburg, whence they send some ships annually to China, and to the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar. They have no kind of merchandize to send from Sweden to India, except some iron and copper, and these articles they cannot find a market for in any considerable quantity; so that the greatest part of their cargo must be paid for in specie. How far this part of trade is beneficial for Sweden, where there is so little specie, and where the merchants are obliged to procure silver at a considerable premium, must be left to the judgment of the reader. If the cargoes of the East-India ships, which are landed in Sweden, were for the consumption of that kingdom, this branch of commerce would soon bring the inhabitants to destruction. But we find, by the custom-house books of Gottenburg, that they export East-India goods to the amount of two hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling yearly; which are smuggled into Scotland and Ireland, and entered regularly into several ports of the Baltick, to Hamburg and to Bremen, which is rather more than the prime cost and freight of all the goods they bring from India, and, consequently, Sweden has her own consumption free of all charges; and as long as the merchants of this kingdom can find a market for the surplus of their East-India goods, this trade cannot be detrimental to them, but the contrary. The uniting the Isle of Man to the crown of Great Britain was a terrible blow to the Swedish and Danish companies, as the merchants of Gottenburg, and those of Copenhagen had in that island considerable magazines of East-India goods.

Skara, Skaren, or Skar, is a bishop's see, about twelve miles distant from the lake Wenner to the south, and eighty-four from Gottenburg to the north-west, was the seat of the ancient kings of Sweden, and had a palace, one of the stateliest not only in the north, but in all Europe, as may still be judged by its situation, walls, and structure. It is now a fenceless town, though formerly the metropolis of West-Gothland. Near the lake Wenner, and the ancient palace we have been mentioning, stands the mountain called Kindakulle, which is very high, and produces all kinds of herbs and plants, except vines. Every thing grows there naturally; and this mountain,

which may be reckoned one of the most fruitful in the north, is also one of the most delightful, by the sweet warbling of an infinite number of birds that frequent it.

The town of Linkoping, which implies the mart of Lida, stands on the lake Wenner, at the mouth of the river Lida, which there falls into the lake. It is fifteen miles distant from Skara.

The town of Falcoping stands on the south bank of a little lake which empties itself into the river Lida; it is twenty miles north from Skara.

On the eastern bank of the lake Wenner stands Mariestadt, being thirty miles distant from Linkoping, to the north-east. This town had its name from Mary-Anne, consort to king Charles IX. who built it.

These three last cities are not very considerable at present.

The province of Vermeland, or Wermeland, has Dalecarlia on the north; Westermania and Nericia, on the east; the lake Wenner, on the south; and Norway, with part of Dalia, on the west. Its greatest extent, from east to west, is about ninety-seven miles; and from north to south, about one hundred and forty-four. It has a great many lakes and marshes, is but indifferently cultivated, and thinly peopled. Here are one copper, and several iron mines.

The chief towns are, 1. Carlostad or Carlstad, which stands on the northern bank of the lake Wenner, one hundred and twenty miles west from Stockholm. It was built by Charles IX. king of Sweden, in the place of the ancient city of Tingwalla. 2. Philipstad, about twenty-five miles from Carlostad, to the north-east. This is a place of difficult access, being seated amongst brooks and marshes. 3. Ruscoy is about the same distance from Philipstad, southward.

The province of Dalia, which the Swedes spell Daal, is one of the smallest in the kingdom; has the lake Wenner on the east, West-Gothland Proper, on the south-east; the government of Bahus, and port or Aggerhuus, on the west and north-west; and Vermeland, on the north-east. Its extent, from north to south, is about eighty-four miles, and from east to west, not above twenty-four. It is full of mountains; and has several lakes and rivers, which fall into the lake Wenner. The country is in general barren; though in some places there are pretty good pastures for cattle, which are of a larger size than ordinary.

The places of most note in this province, are, 1. Daleburg, which is the chief place in this province, and stands on the western bank of the lake Wenner, sixty miles from Gottenburg, towards the north-east. 2. Tweta, on the same lake, twenty miles more to the northward.

South Gothland is divided into three provinces; namely, Halland, Schonen, and Bleking. It hath East and West Gothland, on the north, and is surrounded every-where else by the sea.

The province of Halland has the sea of Denmark, or Categate, to the south-west; Schonen, on the south; and part of East Gothland and West Gothland, on the north-east and north. Its extent, along the sea coast, is about seventy-five miles; but its greatest breadth is not above twenty-two miles. This is a pleasant and fruitful country, which belonged formerly to Denmark, but was, in 1645, engaged to the Swedes, as a security for a free passage of the Sound: and was afterwards, by the treaty of Roschild, ceded to them for ever.

The principal towns are, 1. Halmstad, the capital of this province, which stands on the Categate, one hundred and forty miles from Calmar, to the west; and forty-six from Gottenburg to the south. It has a good harbour, and is a place of trade. It was fortified by Christian IV. king of Denmark, but given up to Sweden by the treaty of Brombro, in 1645. 2. Laholm, a small town on the Categate, at the mouth of the river Laga, eighteen miles distant from Halmstad, to the south-east. It has a citadel, and a good harbour. 3. Falkenberg, on the same sea, at the mouth of a large river of the same name, is eighteen miles distant from Halmstad, to the north-west. It is a sea-port, defended by a castle. 4. Warberg, a small town with a strong castle and a large harbour, is twenty-seven miles distant from Halmstad, towards the north; and twenty southward of Gottenburg.

The province of Schonen, which is a peninsula, is separated from Zealand by the Sound, which washes its coast, on the west; it is bounded, on the north, partly by Halland, and partly by Smaland; on the east, by part of Bleking, and the Baltick sea, which waters it also on the south. It is about eighty miles from north to south,

south, and about sixty from east to west. As it is the most southern, it is also the most fruitful province, abounding with corn, cattle, fowl, and all the conveniences of life. It has also mines of silver, lead, and iron.

This province is liable to be the theatre of war, whenever a rupture happens between Sweden and Denmark, because of the vicinity of these two kingdoms. It belonged formerly to the Danes, but was yielded to the Swedes, in 1660. The Danes seized again the greatest part of it, in 1676 and 1677, but were obliged to restore it the Swedes by the treaty concluded at Fontainebleau, in France, September 16, 1679.

The city of Lunden, the capital of this province, is but a few miles distant from the sea-shore, and stands over-against Copenhagen, from which it is about twenty-four miles distant, to the east; one hundred and twenty from Gottenburg, to the south; and about two hundred and seventy-three from Stockholm, to the south-west. It was formerly the see of an archbishop; but in 1658, when the Swedes took the city, that dignity was removed to Copenhagen; and it is now only an episcopal see. It was adorned with an university erected by Charles IX. in 1668, and which has produced eminent men; and, particularly, the celebrated Samuel Puffendorf: but this university has been suppressed, as we have observed above. This was formerly a very considerable city, in which were twenty-two churches, whereof the cathedral of St. Laurence is a magnificent structure, having a very high spire, which is a landmark for sailors; and a clock, of the most ingenious contrivance, said to be the work of Caspar Bartholinus. It not only shews the hour, day, month, and year, together with all the festivals, but the movements are so artificially contrived, that, at the hour, two horsemen come forth, and encounter each other, giving so many blows as the hammer is to strike upon the bell: then a door opens, discovering the Virgin Mary sitting on a throne, with Christ in her arms, and the magi, or wise men, paying their homage, while two trumpeters sound a note of triumph. Near the city is a hill, on which the kings of Sweden used to be elected in antient times.

The town of Malmoe is populous, though small: it is situated on the Sound, and enjoys a considerable share of commerce. Landskroon is likewise situated upon the Sound; has a good harbour, much commerce, is strong, and well fortified. Elsinburg, also situated on the Sound, is a place of considerable trade; but the fortifications are gone to ruin at present.

Bleking is situated between Smaland, Schonen, and the Baltick. This province stretches above eighty miles in length from east to west; and is about fifty from north to south, at the broadest part. The coasts are rocky, and the interior parts mountainous, woody and barren.

The chief towns in this province are, 1. Christianstadt, which is eight miles from the sea, and situated in the midst of morasses: it has been several times taken and retaken in the course of the wars with Denmark. 2. Christianople, once the capital of this province: it had formerly a good harbour, which Charles XI. took a great deal of pains to ruin, and render useless. 3. Ahuys, situated on the Baltick, at the mouth of the river Hellea: it has a safe, capacious, and much-frequented harbour. 4. Carlscroon, situated on a small island, which it entirely covers; it is joined to the continent by a long bridge. It is near forty-six miles to the east of Ahuys, has an excellent harbour, and is well fortified. There is another small sea port, called Carlsholm, between this place and Ahuys.

The next grand division of Sweden is Finland, which is about three hundred and eighty-six miles in length, from north to south, and two hundred and fifteen from east to west: it is bounded by the Bothnian gulf, part of Russia, and part of Lapland. It abounds in grain, cattle, fish, &c. of which exports are made to other parts of the kingdom; it likewise furnishes other provinces with butter, cheese, &c. The inhabitants speak a very peculiar dialect, so as to be scarcely intelligible to the Swedes of other provinces; and their religion is, for the most part, the Lutheran.

Till about the middle of the thirteenth century, the Finlanders had kings of their own: but they were at that time subdued by Erick IX. king of Sweden; however, part of the province of Savolax, all that of Kexholm, a portion of Carlia, and the fortresses of Nyllot, were ceded for ever to Russia, by the treaty of Abo, in 1743.

This country is divided into seven provinces, viz. Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kexholm, Savolax, Tavastia, and Cajania.

The town of Abo, which is the capital of the whole duchy, and of Finland Proper in particular, is situated

on the Bothnic gulf, at the mouth of the river Aurojoki, opposite to the isle of Aland. The town is the see of a bishop; and here is a university; which was founded and endowed by the celebrated queen Christina.

A very late traveller, in a letter to a friend, thus remarks, concerning this town, "There is not any thing in Abo which has entertained me in the survey, or can amuse you by the description. It is a wretched capital of a barbarous province. The houses are almost all of wood, and the archiepiscopal place is composed of no better materials, except that it is painted red. I inquired if there was not any thing in the university to merit attention; but they assured me it would be regarded as a piece of ridicule to visit it on such an errand, there being nothing within its walls except a very small library, and a few philosophical instruments." The town, however, derives some trade from its harbour, in the neighbourhood of which is a rock surrounded by the water. It is singular, that when any ship passes this rock, the needle no longer points towards the north; from whence a vulgar conjecture hath arisen, that the rock contains a loadstone mine.

The other towns of Finland Proper, namely, Biorno, Hangant, Bioneburg, and Nyftadt, are exceedingly inconsiderable.

Nylandia hath South Finland Proper, on the west, Tavastia on the north, the river Kimen on the east, and the gulf of Finland on the south. This province contains the following towns: 1. Helsingfors, the capital of this province: it is a small town, situated on a gulf of the same name, at the mouth of the river Winda, which falls here into the gulf of Finland. It lies over-against the city of Revel, and is about ninety miles distant from Abo towards the east. It has a pretty good harbour, and a very large fortress, lately built, which is garrisoned by about eight thousand men. 2. Burgo; which is a small and not very populous, but antient town on the coast of the Finnic gulf, on the eastern bank of a little river: it stands over-against the isle of Paling, and is twenty-one miles distant from Helsingfors to the north-east; and has a small harbour. 3. Raseburg, a little town, the capital of an earldom of the same name, stands on the gulf of Finland, thirty-eight miles from Helsingfors to the west, and forty-eight from Abo to the south-east. 4. Ekenes, that is to say, the peninsula of oaks, stands on the same gulf, about six miles from Raseburg to the south-west. This town is very dangerous of access, on account of the many rocks and shelves that are before it.

Carelia is a very fruitful province, and extends, from east to west, about one hundred and fifty miles. The principal towns are, 1. Wyburg, which is situated at the bottom of the gulf of Finland, is a bishop's see, has considerable trade, is well fortified, commanded by a castle, and greatly benefited by having a good harbour. 2. Mala, which stands on a small bay, that communicates with the lake Ladoga. 3. Wekelao is a very small poor place, and, 5. Wilmanstradt, which belongs to the Russian dominions.

Kexholm is a very extensive, but unfertile province, containing many large lakes and barren mountains. It is bounded, on the north, by part of Lapland; on the east, by part of Russia and the Onega lake; on the west, by Savolax; and on the south, by the lake Ladoga.

In this province are only the two following towns of any note; namely, Kexholm, from which the province has its name, is called by the Russians, Carelogorod, and in Latin, Kexholmia, or Carelogroda. It is a small city, situated among marshes, on the western bank of the Ladoga lake, sixty miles from Wyburg to the north-east. It is defended by a very strong citadel, and was formerly, with the whole province, subject to the Russians, till about the beginning of the last century, when the czar promised Charles IX. king of Sweden, to surrender the town and province to him, if he would assist him against the Poles, by whom he was then closely beset; but being freed from the danger, he refused to perform his promise; which made the Swedes invade his dominions, and obliged him to yield up by treaty, in the year 1616, not only this town and country, but also the most considerable places in Ingria. But in the late wars the Russians have taken all again, as we observed above.

The town of Lexa, in the north part of this province, stands on the banks of a lake, one hundred and twenty miles distant from Kexholm to the north.

Savolax, an inland province, has Cajania on the north, the province of Kexholm on the east, Carelia on the south, and Tavastia on the west. It is a barren and desert country, covered with forests, and abounding with lakes, which

afford its few inhabitants plenty of fish. It is divided into the greater and lesser Savolax: the former, which lies towards the south, contains five districts. The eastern part of this province was yielded to the Russians, by the late treaty of Abo.

The most considerable towns here are as follow: 1. Koskimpe, or Kosnipe, the chief town of this province, stands on a lake, about seventy-five miles from Wyburg to the north. 2. Nysslot, a strong fort, is also seated on a lake, fifty miles from Koskimpe to the east. It was built in the year 1475, by Erick Axelson, governor of Abo, and was of use against the invasions of the Russians, but belongs now to them. 3. Runal is named by Luytz as one of the chief towns of this province; but, by the maps, Saminge, which stands on the banks of the same lake, a few miles distant from Nysslot to the south, as Runal does about thirty more to the west, seems rather to deserve that character.

Tavastia, or Tavastland, has Cajania on the north, and partly on the west, where it is also bounded by Finland, properly so called. It has Nyland on the south, and Savolax on the east. It is a marshy country, and is divided, according to d'Audiffred, into four territories, called Sermaki by the inhabitants; namely, the districts of Hattula, Hauho, Offre-Haredt, and Nedra-Haredt. Here are reckoned eight lakes, the most considerable of which is the Peinde. This country is not much cultivated nor populous: there are however iron mines, which afford a pretty considerable profit.

The most noted places are as follow: 1. Tavastus, the capital of the province, which borrows its name from it, otherwise called Croneburg, in Latin, Tavastia, or Croneburgum, is seated in the southern part of the province, on a small river, which a little lower falls into the lake Wana, about an hundred miles from Abo to the north-east, and an hundred and twenty-six from Wyburg to the north-west. It is strong, by its situation in a marshy ground, which renders it of a very difficult access. Martin Zeiller asserts, that Birger Jarl, a Swedish general, fortified this city in 1250, in order to keep the inhabitants in awe, whom he had obliged to embrace the Christian religion. 2. Sermaki, the most northern town of this province, near the borders of Cajania, is an hundred and sixty-five miles distant from Tavastus to the north. 3. Hattula, forty-eight miles from Sarmaki to the south. 4. Mahatan, fifteen miles from Hattula towards the south-east. 5. Rautalanby, on a branch of the lake Peinde, twelve miles from Hattula to the south. 6. Jemse, on the western bank of the lake Peinde, thirty-six miles from Rautalanby to the south-west. 7. Sifme, on the eastern bank of the same lake, forty miles from Jemse to the south-east; and, 8. Padasjoki, over-against Sifme, on the same lake, forty miles from Tavastus to the north-east; are small towns of very little note.

The lake called Peinde, or Pe Jende, is about eighty miles long from north to south, and communicates with several other lakes, particularly with that called Rotzlain, by means of which its waters run into the river Kymen, and so into the gulf of Finland.

Cajania, called by some East Bothnia, lies along the Bothnic gulf, which bounds it on the west; it has that part of Lapland called Kimi-Lapmark on the north; part of Muscovite Lapland and Tavastia on the east, and Finland Proper on the south. It abounds with rivers, which empty themselves into the gulf of Bothnia, and has several lakes; amongst which there is a pretty large one, called Ula-Tresk, which receives the waters of several other lakes, and runs into the sea, by means of the river Ula. This lake is about forty-five miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth. In the midst of it stands a little island, called Ula, about fifteen miles long, and nine miles broad. The northern and eastern parts of this province are covered with mountains, the rest of the country is reasonably fruitful.

The chief towns here are as follow: 1. Cajaneburg, the chief place of this province, from which it borrows its name, is situated on the north-east side of the lake Ula-Tresk, about two hundred and seven miles from Tavastia towards the north, ninety-six from the coast of the Bothnic gulf to the east, and about thirty from the nearest borders of Lapland towards the south-west. It is defended by a good citadel. 2. Ula, a little town at the mouth of the river to which it gives its name, stands on the Bothnic gulf, eighty-eight miles from Cajaneburg to the west. 3. Ulaburg, a fortified town, lies in a little island over-against the mouth of the river Ula. 4. 5. Carelby; there are two towns of that name, the one called Old Ca-

relby, and the other New or Ny Carelby; they are both on the coast of the Bothnic gulf, the former about seventy, and the latter eighty-four miles from Ula to the south. Between these two towns stands, 6. Jacobstadt, six miles from Old Carelby to the south, and eight from Ny Carelby to the north. 7. The small town of Lockto is situated on the same coast, eight miles from Old Carelby to the north, near the mouth of the river Locktoa, which springs from a ridge of mountains that divide Cajania from Tavastia, and, being swelled by the waters of a lake, called Lestjervi, runs to the north-west, and falls into the Bothnian gulf, between Locktoa and the rock called Kala. 8. Wasa, or, as the inhabitants of this country call it, Mustafar, is also a sea-port town on the same gulf, sixty miles from Old Carelby to the south. It is the native place of the famous Gustavus Vasa, who reigned in Sweden with so much glory. 9. Christianstadt also stands on the gulf of Bothnia, is fifty miles from Biornenburg to the north, and fifteen miles distant from Wasa towards the south.

SECT. IV.

Containing a Description of those Islands which form a Part of SWEDEN.

THE most considerable islands belonging to the king of Sweden are, 1. Gothland. 2. Oeland. 3. Oesel. 4. Dago. 5. Hagland. 6. Aland. 7. Rugen.

Gothland or Gothia Insula, is situated in the Baltick sea, over-against the coast of East-Gothland in Sweden, from which it is about fifty-two miles distant, to the east. It lies between fifty-seven and fifty-eight degrees of north latitude, and between eighteen degrees, thirty minutes, and twenty degrees of longitude east of London. Its greatest length, from the south-west to the north-east, is about fifty-six miles; but its breadth is not above eighteen miles, from east to west. Olaus Magnus says, it was called Gothland, that is to say, Good Land, because it is fruitful, abounding with all necessaries of life, and so well provided with all the blessings of nature, that it may be reckoned among the best islands in the north. It is, says he in another place, a good land, in several respects; the inhabitants are a good sort of people; there are good harbours all round the coasts; the soil is good, it abounds in pastures, cattle, wild-fowl, fish, good water, woods, and beautiful marble. This island belonged formerly to the Prussian knights, who quitted it to the Danes in 1408, for nine thousand crowns. The Swedes got it in 1645, but it was retaken by the Danes in 1677, and restored to the Swedes by the treaty of Fontainebleau in 1679. There is here but one considerable city, namely,

Wisby, Wisbuy, or Wisburg, the chief place of this island, on the western coast of it. It is built on the declivity of a rock near the sea-shore, is surrounded with a strong wall, and defended by a pretty strong castle, built near the harbour, where the governor of the island usually resides. Olearius relates, that the ruins of fourteen churches, and of several houses, gates, and walls, of free-stone and marble, which he saw there in 1635, made him judge that this was formerly a very large city; but it is now very much decayed. It began to be considerable towards the end of the eighth century; since which time it became so populous, that it contained ten thousand inhabitants, most of them merchants, without reckoning the Danes, Swedes, Vandals, Saxons, Muscovites, Jews, Greeks, Prussians, Polanders and Livonians, who traded there. These foreigners were so numerous, that they could make head against the inhabitants; and in the year 1288, there arose a quarrel amongst them, and a battle was fought, in which a great many men were killed on both sides. However, the inhabitants gained the victory, and Magnus, king of Sweden, reconciled them with the foreigners.

The inhabitants of Wisby are said to be the first who made hydrographical tables and sea charts: they also pretend to the glory of being the first that made laws for regulating trade and navigation. But Monsieur La Martinier observes, that they have rather admitted than invented them. He says, that being grown rich by navigation, they introduced among themselves the famous laws of Oleron, an island of France, in order to decide by them the disputes that might arise amongst merchants. They translated those laws into their own language, and made some additions to them; by which means, they were not only looked upon as the authors of them, but acquired also the reputation of being the most famous traders in Europe.

In 1597, the Hans-Towns sent deputies to Lubeck, in order to draw up laws relative to navigation, which laws are still observed throughout the whole Baltick; but they are, properly speaking, the very laws of Wisby, with some additions and improvements: and what shews that these laws are more modern than those of Oleron, is, that those of Lubeck are fuller than those of Wisby, as the latter are more complete than those of Oleron.

Oeland is a narrow slip of land over-against the continent of South Gothland, from which it is separated by a strait, which is not above nine or ten miles broad, and is called Calmarfan, or the strait of Calmar. This island, whose name signifies the land of hay, is about seventy miles long from south to north; but its greatest breadth is not above twelve miles. The soil affords good pasture, and many herds of oxen, horses, and fallow deer.

On the western coast are only two villages, and these not populous, named Alebeck and Smedeby, with the city of Borkholm, in Latin Borcholmia, the capital of this island. It lies under fifty-six degrees, fifty-seven minutes, north latitude, and eighteen degrees, ten minutes, of longitude, east of London. It is about fifteen miles distant from Calmar towards the north-east, and is defended by a castle.

The eastern coast is very well peopled, and contains, going from north to south, the towns of Bodla, Koningsgard, Hogaby, Kilda, Stapeling, Genstala, Remasten, Møkelby, Stenafa, with the villages of Hulderstad and Ottenby. There are many forts and castles to defend this island, that have been often attacked. In 1530, it was taken by the Danes, soon after which the Swedes recovered it; but, being lost again, Gustavus Adolphus finally retook it in 1613, since which the crown of Sweden has possessed it without molestation.

The island of Oesel is about fifty miles in length, but the breadth varies in different parts. It is opposite to the coast of Livonia, and has no town of consideration but Arensburg, which is situated on the southern coast of the island, and defended by a castle. There is also a fortress called Someburg, on the northern coast. The whole is now in the possession of the Russians, who took it from the Swedes some years since.

To the northward of Oesel is situated the island of Dagö: they are separated by the narrow strait of Honfwick: it is of a triangular form, the sides being from twenty to twenty-five miles in length. On the western cape there is a high tower, which was built by the senate of Revel, as a light-house and land-mark. Between this island and the continent of Estonia are some sand-banks, small islands, rocks, &c. The northern and north-east parts are mountainous.

The island of Hogland is about nine miles in length, and is situated in the gulf of Finland. It consists only of a cluster of rocks interspersed or covered with fir-trees, brambles, &c. and has on it a few hares that in the winter grow white.

The island of Åland, in the Baltick, is situated between forty and fifty miles from the south-west part of Finland; the circumference is near an hundred and eighty miles, and the inhabitants near six thousand in number. They live in small hamlets, as there is no regular town in the island; for indeed the peasants have almost remonstrated against the building any, which the Swedish government have been desirous of effecting. The unhappy king, Erick XIV. was confined in a castle in this island, which goes under the name of Castleholm. The apartment where the king was imprisoned is composed of stone, and vaulted over head, and is entered into through a trap-door: it is about twenty-three feet long, and twelve broad. Any person must be struck with compassion and horror on reflecting that a sovereign had been the tenant of such a dungeon, which is too miserable for the worst malefactor. The light is admitted by a narrow window, through a wall five feet in thickness.

There are abundance of cattle on this island, some wild beasts, and plenty of fish in the circumjacent seas. It is surrounded by many sand-banks, rocks, and small islands, some of the latter being inhabited and others not. To the south of Åland there are several other isles, the chief of which are Flys, Landsweden, Rodan and Nyan. The isle of Ekero, in the west of Åland, extends from north to south about six miles; and is separated from Åland by a narrow channel, about three miles broad.

The last island we shall take notice of is Rugen, which is situated in the Baltick, opposite to Stralsund; is twenty-three miles in length and fifteen in breadth, with the title of a principality. It is strong by nature, and well fortified

by art. It abounds with corn and cattle, and contains a town, called Bergen.

An ingenious gentleman, among other particulars relating to these islands, has favoured us with the following: "About nine o'clock, says he, I went on shore on an island called Lappo. I walked to a little hamlet at a mile distance from the shore: the poor peasants very cheerfully brought me some cream, and assisted in boiling my coffee. Nothing could exceed their poverty: a little black bread, fish, pork, and a sort of mixture they called beer, constituted all their sustenance. After having made a very comfortable breakfast on this unknown and sequestered island, I returned again to the boat. During the whole day we pursued our voyage through a labyrinth of small rocks and isles; many of them covered with firs and aspens; some few green and beautiful, but the far greater part brown and rugged. I could have fancied myself among the Cyclades, so famous in antient story; but here were no temples sacred to Apollo or Juno, nor had genius and poetry conspired to render every cliff and promontory immortal. Many of the prospects were, however, wonderfully picturesque and romantic, and I frequently stopt the boatmen for a minute, to gaze upon the extraordinary scenes around me. Sometimes we went through channels of only twenty or thirty feet in breadth; sometimes the water opened into a considerable expanse, and often there appeared to be no avenue on any side. I was astonished how they so exactly knew their track in this intricate and perplexing maze, through which nothing could have conducted them but long experience and practice.

S E C T. V.

Describing the Inhabitants of SWEDEN, their Persons, Drefs, Manners, Customs, Employments, Soil, Cloathing, Language, Learning, Religion, Arts, Manufactures, Trade, Coins, &c.

IN general, the Swedes are a very strong and robust people; and the climate affording a healthy and dry air, they have excellent constitutions, and are capable of enduring hardships and fatigues. Where they are not too much exposed to the weather, they have good complexions, and their hair, like that of other northern nations, is inclined to yellow. The women are of a just proportion; they have also good features, and those who are employed at home are generally fair; but the peasants are accustomed to make their females undergo an equal share in all laborious employments: they go to the plow, thresh their corn, row upon the water, and carry burdens in common with the men. The inhabitants are, however, far from being sufficient to people the country; a remarkable instance of this in one place, though not the most northerly, is, that in the compass of one thousand, two hundred, and seventy square miles, there are hardly four thousand seven hundred people to be found.

Some learned Swedes have computed the number of inhabitants of Sweden and Finland at about three millions, reckoning eighty thousand farms, on which are one million, six hundred thousand souls, including the women, children and servants; and it said that these farms make up above half the number of inhabitants in the whole kingdom. Indeed, some parishes are at present so extensive, and at the same time so thinly inhabited, that a peasant must travel several Swedish miles to visit his next neighbour; others contain not more than seventy farms, and yet take up a track of land equal to the whole province of Holland, though perhaps that flourishing country contains more towns than there are cottages in such a parish.

In Sweden, the common people subsist by agriculture, working in the mines, grazing, hunting, fishing, and commerce, both domestic and foreign. The inhabitants of the northern parts are strangers to delicacies, and live very hardy. They eat a sort of bread made of the bark of birch and pine-trees, straw and roots. The hocky or stampe, is also a kind of bread very common in the north; and in times of scarcity is sometimes used in the southern parts. This is made of the ears of corn cut from the stems and chopped small; after which it is dried and ground: on this kind of meal they pour boiling water, and mix it with leaven and corn-meal, where it is to be had. In spring they also take the bark of firs, which at that time comes the easiest off the trees; but not the thick bark next the wood. Having pared off the outward coarse knots, it is dried in an oven, or placed over a wood fire, till both sides become brown, swell, and undergo a kind of fermentation,

tion, by which the resin is consumed. They make bread of the meal which proceeds from these pieces of bark, after being thus dried and ground.

These poor people are also taught by necessity to make bread of a plant called misse, and by the fins, wekka (called, in Latin, *calla foliis cordatis*), which is gathered during the spring in the morasses. After it is dried in the sun, it is baked in an oven, or half dried in a warm room, where it is sprinkled with water. It is then put into the oven a second time, and dried till the leaves fall off, and the outward tegument detaches itself at the knot from the stem; then the stems are chopped small in a trough, and, being afterwards ground, the meal is sifted, and dough made of it, by pouring hot water on the meal; it is usual also to pour some brandy lees amongst it, to give the bread a more agreeable flavour. The dough is afterwards kneaded with great labour; after which, they mix a third part of corn-meal with it. Their other food consists of fish and dried flesh.

Persons in affluent circumstances here, as in other countries, keep a good table; and the rich, and such as live in great towns, are not unacquainted with delicious fare.

In the winter season, their cloathing is suitable to the climate: the rich wear cloaths lined with warm furs; instead of which, those who cannot afford them, make their cloaths of sheep-skins with the wool on; and thus, as a modern writer observes, are better provided with cloathing adapted to the season, and to their own condition, than people of most other countries are found to be.

With respect to their dress, the fashion of it resembles that of the Germans and other European nations; they wear, in summer, such cloaths and stuffs as their wealth enables them to procure, the great adorning themselves with lace and embroidery; and imitate, as much as possible, the fashions and manners of the French.

There is such an affinity between the Swedish and the Danish and Norwegian tongues, that the inhabitants of the three kingdoms readily understand one another; but Finland and Lapland have their respective dialects. It appears, from the Runic stones, still to be seen in most of the provinces near the sepulchres of the dead, that the Swedes, in the time of paganism, made use of a particular alphabet, termed Runic characters.

Of late years, the Swedes are greatly improved in arts and sciences; but the branches of literature which they chiefly study are oeconomies, natural philosophy, with the antiquities, history and geography, of their own and other countries. The most curious piece of learning amongst them is a translation of the evangelists into the Gothic tongue, done above one thousand three hundred years ago, by Upsala, a bishop of the Goths in Thracia, of which they have the sole ancient manuscript copy that is known to be in the world.

The university of Upsal is the most ancient and considerable one in Sweden; there is also one at Lund in Schonen, and another at Abo, in Finland. There is likewise, a royal academy of sciences at Stockholm: in the same city is a royal academy of painting and sculpture, and another for that part of the mathematics which relates to the military art. An academy for the polite arts has also been lately instituted at Dromingholm.

There are seminaries for the education of youth instituted in ten towns of Sweden; episcopal schools are founded at Upsal and Abo, and inferior schools in several other places. In short, an ordinance for the improvement and regulation of the art of printing was published by his Swedish majesty in 1752, by which a new society was instituted for the encouragement of it.

Sweden was formerly involved in the grossest darkness and idolatry with respect to religion. The city of Upsal was the seat of their superstitious worship. The emperor, Charles the Great, sent hither an eminent ecclesiastic, named Herbert, who preached the gospel in East Gothland; and for the same purpose, the emperor Lewis sent into Sweden the famous Ansharius, who was succeeded by several others. In the middle ages the clergy had obtained the possession of several estates, and the pope assumed a great power over the temporal concerns of the kingdom.

These abuses procured Olaus Petri, a disciple of Luther, a favourable reception in Sweden, where he promulgated the pure doctrines of the gospel: and that great king, Gustavus Vasa, happily introduced the reformation in Sweden, in spite of all the numerous difficulties he had to encounter. Indeed, it afterwards met with great opposition, and underwent many trials in the reigns of John and Sigismund; yet it was at last established by the diet and synod held at Upsal in 1593, when the states of the kingdom solemnly engaged to adhere to the doctrines of Luther;

and this religion, since the decree of uniformity passed in 1613, is to be esteemed both by the sovereign and his subjects the only established church in the kingdom. Indeed, in 1741, his majesty was pleased to permit, by a royal edict, that the Calvinists and members of the church of England should, in all the sea-ports, except that of Carlscroon, enjoy the free exercise of their religion.

In Sweden, the hierarchy is composed of the archbishop of Upsal, who performs the coronation ceremony, and ten bishops, with three superintendants, one of whom resides at Carlstadt, another at Hernosand, and the third in Gothland. The other ecclesiastics, who are subordinate to these, are the provosts, deacons, chaplains, or curates, and the ministers or incumbents in villages.

In a dissertation delivered in the year 1749, Mr. A. Birch observes, that in this kingdom, exclusive of the German provinces, there are in all three thousand ecclesiastical benefices, one thousand three hundred civil posts, filled by persons learned in the laws; one thousand three hundred military posts, occupied by men of literature; six hundred officers, relating to the several departments belonging to the government, and two thousand six hundred physicians and surgeons.

Within a century or two arts and manufactures have made great progress. Formerly no manufactures were established in this kingdom; the Hanse-towns not only exported unwrought iron and copper, but the ore of those metals, and when they were wrought into various tools and utensils, sold them again to the Swedes. The inhabitants of the coasts were all fishermen, and the towns had no artificers. The Swedes first began to work their metals, and even their wood, in the reign of the great Gustavus Vasa, anno 1530; and towards the middle of the seventeenth century began to set up all kinds of manufactures, but chiefly employed foreigners, particularly the Dutch and Flemings. In the year 1641, a glass-house was first erected in Sweden; in 1643, the Swedes began to make starch; in 1646, they erected tin-works. They had no booksellers shops till the year 1647, nor needle and silk manufactures till 1649. Leather-dressing and soap-boiling were introduced into this country in 1651; sawing-mills were erected in 1653; iron and steel manufactures in 1654; sugar-baking in 1661; but the woollen and silk manufactures flourished more than all the rest, till the wars of Charles XII. put a stop to trade, and consequently to the progress of the arts. But in the reign of Frederick I. trade and manufactures revived; the breeding of sheep was encouraged, tobacco planted, and foreign artists and manufacturers allowed the free exercise of their religion without molestation.

There are at present in Sweden manufactures of silk, cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; linen, sail-cloth, Morocco leather, dying, and printing of cottons; they have houses for boiling or refining of allum, sugar, soap, and salt; for making glass, porcelain, and paper; they have also gunpowder mills, stamping mills, boring mills, wire and flattening mills; vast quantities of copper, brass, iron, and steel, are wrought in Sweden, which has founderies for great guns, pots, and the like, and forges for fire-arms, and anchors: great numbers of ships are also built, and wooden vessels and utensils made here.

This kingdom is conveniently situated for commerce, as it lies between the Baltick and the North sea. The towns which are allowed to import and export goods in their own ships, and to trade both with natives and foreigners, are called staple-towns; there are thirty-four in number: but those that lie near the sea, and yet have no foreign commerce, and are only permitted to carry on a domestic trade, to have shares in the freight of goods, and to purchase by wholesale the goods imported by the staple-towns, are called land-towns: some of these are within land, and others sea-port towns; others again are mine-towns.

The chief staple-towns in Sweden are Stockholm and Gottenburg. At the former are held the college of commerce, an assurance-office, and the national bank, which has frequently advanced considerable sums of money for the service of the government, and has a fund of about six millions of silver dollars, each equal to one shilling and six-pence two-thirds sterling, besides current bills to the amount of seventy millions. At Gottenburg is the East-India company, erected in 1731, which pays for every ship that returns from India fifty thousand silver dollars to the government. They have also a Levant company, which trade to Smyrna, &c.

The Swedes export iron wrought and in bars, wrought metals, timber, gunpowder, pitch, tar, salt-petre, potash, cordage, cobalt, furs, Morocco leather, as it is called, and

and dried fish. The imports are grain, flesh, bacon, cheese, butter, tallow, wine, brandy, drugs, hides, hemp, flax, silk, &c.

Their coins are, the gold ducat, worth about nine shillings and four-pence sterling. The silver coins are the oer, one of which is equal to four pfennings, twenty of them to a caroline, which is about one shilling and two-pence sterling, and thirty-two to a silver dollar, equal to one shilling and six-pence three farthings English money. There are double and half carolines; and double, single, and half-single oers, are current here.

Among their copper pieces are the copper oer, which, like the rundstue, is equal to two pfennings, and is no more than the eighth part of a penny English. An half, a quarter, and a sixth part of a copper oer. A copper dollar, which is about four groschen, and is nearly equal to six-pence farthing. These are very large, and the merchant is often obliged to carry them away in a cart or wheel-barrow, when payment is made in them.

We shall now proceed to describe the political, civil, and military establishments in Sweden, also their courts of justice, laws, punishments, &c.

It appears to be the false policy of the Swedish government to discourage agriculture, and to encourage manufactures, in order to support the arbitrary power of the nobility, and oppress the commonalty. Thus many of those who are fond of naval or military employments are driven into the service of other states, and the poor obliged to resort for protection, shelter, and subsistence, to other countries.

About one half of the bar iron which is made in this country is exported either to Great Britain or Ireland; and when the season happens to be unfavourable, or accidents attend the miners or forges, the merchants are so poor that they are obliged to draw upon the English merchants for the price of the exports, before they are able to ship them off. Yet, notwithstanding these indulgences, and that the balance of trade is greatly in their favour, the Swedish government gives the greatest discouragement to the British trade, which is so capital a source of their wealth; and suffers the nation to be annually drained of a great deal of their specie, by encouraging as much as possible, the French trade.

Most kinds of goods here cannot be made so cheap by an hundred per cent. as they are smuggled from the more southern parts of Europe. The government indeed is not only totally supine with respect to smuggling, but most of the principal people prefer smuggled goods to any manufactured in their own country. To these impediments to the increase of trade and commerce we may add, with an accurate judge of these matters, that the best established commerce in the world might be ruined by the exchange alone, as it is conducted in this country.

The trade to France is very prejudicial to this kingdom, as it takes off but few of their commodities, except iron and a little brass wire, yet runs away with a great deal of their specie, and returns them hardly any thing but luxuries. But the trade to Portugal and Spain, for salt, fruits and wines, is not against the Swedes, as they barter for those commodities their iron, fish, and copper.

With respect to the established revenues of Sweden, they principally arise from, 1. a capitation tax: 2. crown lands; 3. excises; 4. customs; 5. certain tythes; 6. silver and copper mines; 7. law proceedings. These taxes annually amount to ten million, one hundred and four thousand, four hundred and six dollars, silver mint, which, in the year 1769, according to the then value, was equal, in pounds sterling, to five hundred and ninety-four thousand, one hundred and eighty pounds. But we hear that the Swedish government has lately taken great pains to augment the yearly revenue, abolish paper currency, and make other useful regulations. A third part of the revenues are appropriated to the use of the royal family, and the rest to support the civil and military establishments.

It is necessary to observe here, that the crown of Sweden has, for above a century past, received a subsidy from France, for which the former hath usually sacrificed its dearest interest to the latter; and for the sake of retaining this paltry annual present, Sweden, in the late war with the king of Prussia, was forced to contract a debt of three million, five hundred thousand pounds, which has since been considerably augmented to such a degree that it will be always a dreadful national weight upon them.

An established national militia compose the chief part of the Swedish forces; the regulations respecting it were either formed or improved by Charles XI. and have since continued to be the basis of the present establishment.

The nobility and gentry were obliged to furnish the cavalry; and a nobleman, after having furnished a man, could not put either him or his horse to any other employment. The infantry are raised from among the farms, and the king's commission distributes them through the various provinces, in proportion to the number of farms, each of which, the value of above sixty pounds per annum, not being occupied by the officers, or appropriated to their peculiar services, are charged with one foot soldier, who receives from the farmer lodging, diet, cloaths, and a trifling allowance of money; or otherwise a wooden house is built for him at the farmer's charge, who must also furnish him with as much hay as will keep a cow in winter, and with pasturage in summer, and plow and sow for him such a parcel of ground as will afford him bread. Those that are married (as many of them are) generally accept this latter condition: the unmarried soldiers usually dwell with the farmer, but are not obliged to do him any service without wages. When they have once taken the peasant's money, and are enlisted into the king's service, they can never quit it as long as they are able to serve: and if they desert, they are punished with death. The first institution of this method proved very burthensome to the peasants, who were at great charge to hire their men, who cost them ten pounds, and sometimes twenty pounds apiece, and they must do the same, whenever their soldier dies. This is not so chargeable in peaceable times, as in war, when men are unwilling to serve, and there is a greater demand for recruits.

As the country is thus liable to provide all the common soldiers, to all officers, both horse and foot, are maintained by the king, who has appropriated for that purpose some of the lands re-united, or formerly belonging to the crown: so that every officer has a convenient house, and a competent portion of land to live upon, situated in that part of the country where the regiment he belongs to is quartered; as also the rent of as many other farms as make up his pay; which, though it be somewhat less than formerly, yet being punctually paid, either in money, corn, or other commodities, they find it more profitable than when they were to solicit for it at the treasury. A colonel of foot has of these lands the yearly rent of about three hundred pounds, and the rest proportionably; which amounts to about two thousand five hundred pounds a year, for all the officers, both upper and under, of one foot regiment; and there being in Sweden, Finland, and Livonia, twenty-eight regiments of foot under this establishment, the maintenance of all the officers belonging to them costs the king about seventy thousand pounds a year: what charge the cloathing of the common soldiers once in two or three years, their arms, and such other necessaries, may amount to, cannot so easily be computed. The officers of horse are provided for after the same manner, with such large allowance as is requisite. There are fifteen regiments of horse thus established, and the maintenance of their officers is computed to be about eighty thousand pounds a year: all which arises from the rents of crown lands, as do also the wages of civil officers in the country, who have farms annexed to their employments, as the militia have.

The king has made some very exact laws for maintaining this constitution; and provides, with great caution, that neither the peasants shall be oppressed, nor the lands or houses ruined: to which end all such lands are yearly visited, and the possessor compelled to make such repairs as are found needful: and as every officer, upon his first coming to such an estate, subscribes an inventory of it, so upon advancement he cannot take possession of another charge, till he has put that estate into as good a condition as he found it; and till that is done, his heir cannot inherit.

All trespasses and crimes, committed by the soldiers, fall ordinarily under the cognizance of a civil magistrate, who has the same authority over them as over the rest of the king's subjects; except when they are encamped, or in garrison, or any ways under flying colours; in all which cases, as also in matters that relate solely to their profession, their officers have jurisdiction over them; without whose leave a private soldier is not permitted to lodge out of his quarters, nor be absent a day from the parish he belongs to. The inferior officers cannot be absent from their charge, but by their colonel's permission; nor captains, and those above them, without the king's leave. The forces kept up in Sweden, amounted, some years ago, to fifty-four thousand. Above the ordinary establishment the king annexed to each regiment twenty supernumerary farms, to answer any extraordinary accident of fire, &c. and to furnish a subsistence

a subsistence for such officers as are past service : and for common soldiers, whom age and wounds have rendered unfit for war, there is one general hospital, which has a good revenue ; and besides that, every officer who is advanced, pays to it a sum of money proportionable to the degree he is raised to : a colonel pays an hundred crowns ; and others in proportion.

They have now in Sweden about forty thousand land-forces ; but we are informed, that the present king is employing his utmost endeavours to augment them. An ingenious traveller, who lately visited this kingdom, says, " The naval forces, which heretofore made a respectable figure against their enemies, are now in a very poor and debilitated state. When I was at Carlscroon, in the year 1770, the place where their fleet is stationed, and where are the dock-yards, storehouses, and all the materials they have for the use of their marine, I was amazed to see the maritime force of this country in such a situation : about twenty old ships of the line, the one half of which were rotten and unfit for sea, and ten or eleven frigates and sloops of war, almost in the same condition, composed their whole navy. Their storehouses were almost empty, and all the officers and men of their dock-yard complaining of their pay being greatly in arrear. It is true, they keep up the form of a marine establishment, the officers of which are supported much in the same manner as those in the militia are, and the men are raised among the farmers to recruit the body of seamen. The port of Carlscroon is defended by several batteries of cannon, and is supposed, in this country, to be a very strong place ; but four English seventy or eighty gun ships would soon silence all these batteries if they were to be attacked by them, in spite of any resistance the place could make."

In Sweden, as in Denmark, the seamen are of two classes ; namely, one order, which is always actually ready either to man the fleet, or work in the dock-yards ; and another, which is but nominally ready, as the individuals are only registered, and must appear as recruits, upon occasion.

There are five great officers of the crown, who preside each in a tribunal composed of some senators ; and when any of their places become vacant, the king gives it generally to the most antient senator of the tribunal where the vacancy happens ; though he may bestow it in whose favour he pleases : these officers are : 1. the drotter, or chief justice ; he is the first officer in the nation, and was formerly a kind of viceroy ; he has the honour of putting the crown on the king's head at the coronation : he presides in the supreme court of justice, to which there is an appeal from all other courts. 2. The constable ; he presides in the council of war ; has the inspection of the discipline, and all that relates to war ; and enjoys many great and honourable privileges. 3. The admiral ; his power is also very great ; he has the command of the fleet, and appoints all the officers who serve by sea, and gives them their commissions : justice, in all that relates to the admiralty, is administered in his name : he has also many other privileges. 4. The chancellor ; he is the chief of the police, rectifies abuses, and gives the necessary orders for the good of the public : he is the keeper of the seals of the crown, dispatches all state affairs, and lays the king's orders and demands before the states-general. 5. The lord high treasurer ; he has the administration of the treasury, and of all the king's revenue ; audits the accounts of all the several receivers ; signs all the orders for payments ; manages the public funds, and pays all the officers of the kingdom : he also presides in the chamber of accounts, where the imposts on the people are assessed, and which is the place of resort for all the exchequer officers.

The king of Sweden's revenues were antiently so small, that they could hardly maintain him ; they arose only from some duties on merchandizes imported or exported, either by sea or land. It was considerably increased by the discovery of the mines, but chiefly by the introduction of the reformation ; for Gustavus I. having proposed to the nobility to share with him the church lands, which made up above one third of the kingdom, seized the greatest part of them, and united also with the crown the right of forfeitures, which belonged to the bishop almost throughout all Sweden ; and the resumption of lands granted away from the crown by preceding kings, to the nobility and gentry, have raised the king's revenue to a very high degree. This was done by king Charles XI. in the year 1680, and though it was much opposed by the assembly of the states, especially by the nobility, yet the lower order consenting, nobility were forced to comply. Besides

these branches, the king has a third part of all fines, when they do not exceed forty marks of silver ; and, when they do, he takes it all : he has also all forfeitures upon the account of high treason, and the estates of strangers, if their heirs do not appear within a year after the death of the last possessor.

Antiently the laws of Sweden were as various as the provinces were numerous, each of which had statutes and customs peculiar to itself, enacted, as occasion required, by the laghman, or governor of the province, who was chosen by the people, and invested with great authority, especially when the kingdom was elective, his suffrage concluding the province he governed. This variety was necessarily attended with great confusion, for remedy whereof, about one hundred and fifty years ago, a body of laws were compiled for the direction of the whole kingdom : yet this collection is but an imperfect piece, and the laws so few, and conceived in such general terms, that in most cases they need the assistance of the civil law ; and after all, the final determination depends much upon the inclination of the bench, which in a poor country, where salaries are small, is often filled with such men as are of weak parts, and subject to corruption upon very slight temptations. The effects of this would be more visible, if each superior court did not keep a check upon the lower, and the king's court of revision overawe them all, to which all civil causes importing the sum of seventy pounds are appealable ; and very few end before they have been brought thither. In this supreme court the king frequently sits in person, and determines causes himself. In this court the president of the chancery, and two or three privy counsellors, do also sit : so does the chancellor of the court, (an officer next in degree to a privy counsellor) who is president of the under-revision, where he and two secretaries do put business into a method fit to be brought before the king.

There are three degree of courts of justice, inferior to this ; of the lowest degree, or first instance, there is one in each corporation (besides Stockholm, where there are three) as also in each district or territory, whereof every province contains several, some above twenty : in the former, namely, in cities, an alderman or counsellor presides, and has some of his brethren for assistants : in the latter the governor of the territory presides, with a standing jury under him ; his court is ambulatory, and usually kept near or upon the place, where the fact or trespass was committed. In these courts examinations are taken, and matters not exceeding forty shillings are determined : the rest are transmitted to the next superior court, of which in every corporation there is one, where the burgomaster is president, and the aldermen assistants : and so in every province there is one or more of these courts, the president whereof retains the name of laghman, without any other authority than that of a judge.

From these courts, all causes of blood must be transmitted to the respective national courts, where they are determined without farther appeal ; and thither also all civil actions, not exceeding twenty pounds, may be appealed. Of these national courts there are three ; one for the kingdom of Sweden, held at Stockholm ; another for the kingdom of Gothia, or Gothland, kept at Jeneköping ; and a third for the dukedom of Finland, at Abo. In each of these a privy-counsellor is president, and above half the assessors must be gentlemen. All these courts sit continually, or at most have but short vacations ; and, not being pestered with too much formality, give causes a speedy dispatch, unless they be retarded by vexatious litigations.

Those actions which relate to the sea are to be tried in the ordinary courts, according to their sea laws, founded upon those antient ones of Wisby in the isle of Gothland, which have formerly been as famous in the Baltick sea, as the laws of Rhodes and Oleron in other places. The court of admiralty has not any peculiar jurisdiction in the administration of these laws, but only in such matters as directly concern the king's fleet, and in some places that belong immediately to the admiralty.

There is a consistory in each diocese for ecclesiastical causes, of which the respective bishop is president, where causes of bastardy, contracts of marriage, and other matters of that nature are tried, and church censures of penance, divorce, &c. inflicted. These courts have no power to administer an oath, nor to inflict any corporal punishment. From them there lies an appeal to the respective national courts, and in some cases to the king, as in all others matters of a doubtful nature.

With respect to disputes relating to the mines, besides inferior courts and officers settled in the respective parts of the country, a general court, called the college of the mines,

sits

sits at Stockholm, of which most commonly the president of the treasury is the chief, with a vice-president, and other assessors. The laws in this regard are more exact and particular than in other matters; and for the most part justice is very carefully administered in this court.

The executing of all judicial sentences is lodged in the governors of the provinces, the stadtholders of Stockholm, and other places; and from them derived to inferior officers, who are accountable to the national courts, whither they may be summoned, and punished, upon plain proof of default: but the proof being difficult, and ministers of justice apt to favour each other, they take great liberty to delay execution, or to arbitrate and put their own sense upon sentences; so that this part of justice is administered the worst of all others, and has an influence not only at home, but lessens the credit of the Swedish subjects abroad; against whom justice cannot, without great difficulty, be obtained.

Law-suits are not where more moderately defrayed than in Sweden, the greatest burden arising from a late constitution, that all declarations, acts, and sentences, must be written upon sealed paper of different prices, from twopence to seven shillings a sheet, according to the quality of the cause; the benefit of which accrues to the king, and is computed to bring about three thousand pounds a year. Other charges are very few, every man being permitted, and in criminal actions compelled, to plead his own cause. Accordingly, the practice of the law is below a gentleman, and rather the refuge than the choice of meaner persons, who are not only for the most part very poor, but also few in number.

In Sweden, the custom of a jury of twelve men is so antient, that their writers pretend it had its original among them, and was thence transmitted to other nations; but at present it is every where disused, except only in the lower courts in the country; and there the jurymen are for life, and have salaries. They have this peculiar to themselves, that there must be among them an unanimous consent to determine a cause, which is done by a majority of voices in other countries.

Estates are rendered more secure to the possessors, and less subject to contests, by the registers that are kept of all sales and alienations, as well as of other engagements concerning them; for if the purchaser omits the recording his transaction in the proper court, he runs the hazard of having an after bargain supercede his.

With respect to criminal matters, where the fact is not very evident, or where the judges are very favourable, the defendant is permitted to purge himself by oath; to which are also added the oaths of six or twelve other men, who are all vouchers of his innocence. Treason, murder, double adultery, burning of houses, witchcraft, and the like heinous crimes, are punished with death, which is executed by hanging of men, and beheading of women; to which burning alive or dead, quartering, and hanging in chains, are sometimes added, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals of the gentry or nobility are usually shot to death. The punishment of stealing has for several years past, instead of death, been changed into a kind of perpetual slavery; the guilty party being condemned to work all his life-time for the king, in making fortifications, or other drudgery; he likewise always wears an iron collar about his neck, with a bow coming over his head, to which a tinkling bell is fastened.

In case of duels between gentlemen, if one of the parties be killed, the survivor is punished with death, and the memory of both branded with a note of infamy. If neither be killed, they are both condemned to a prison, with bread and water, for two years: to which is added, a fine of a thousand crowns, or one year's imprisonment, and two thousand crowns. Reparation of honour, in case of affront, is referred to the respective national court, where they usually adjudge recantation, and begging of pardon.

All kinds of estates, as well acquired as inherited, descend to the children in equal portions, of which a son has two, and a daughter one; nor is it in the power of the parent to alter this proportion, without the intervention of a judicial sentence, in case of their childrens' disobedience: only they may bequeath a tenth of their acquired possessions to such child or other as they will favour. Where an estate descends incumbered with debts, the heir usually takes two or three months time, as the law allows, to search into the condition of the deceased's estate; and then either accepts the inheritance, or leaves it to the law, which administers, in that case.

There are three orders of knighthood in Sweden, namely, the order of the polar-star; the order of the sword, created

so lately as in the year 1772; and the order of Vasa, of more antient date.

SECT. VI.

Containing a comprehensive View of the History of SWEDEN, the Wars its Monarchs have been engaged in, and the memorable Revolution in its form of Government, effected in 1772, by the reigning Sovereign.

THE most material event in the Swedish history, that we can depend upon, took place in the year 829, when Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, was sent by the emperor Lewis the pious, to convert the Swedish idolaters; and in the reign of Stenchild, about the year 900, the great idol at Upsal was demolished, and the worship of that image suppressed; which so enraged his heathenish subjects, that they assassinated him; however his brother and successor, Slaus, sent to Ethelred king of England, for more Christian priests, who persuaded him to pay the pope an annual sum to maintain a war against the Saracens, which afterwards obtained the name of Rome'scot. Afterwards, Margaret, queen of Denmark and Norway, reduced Sweden also under her power, and reigned sole monarch of Scandinavia, in 1396; but Gustavus Ericson, about the year 1520, delivered Sweden from the Danish yoke.

This monarch was descended from the antient kings of Sweden, but reduced at this time so low, as to be obliged to work in the copper-mines of Dalecarlia for his subsistence, and to conceal himself from that tyrannical prince, who then possessed the throne of Denmark; and representing the miserable estate of their country to the minors and the neighbouring peasants, he prevailed on them to join him in an attempt to shake off the Danish yoke; to which end, having assembled a body of these brave rustics, he boldly issued out of those subterraneous territories, and surprizing the several posts the Danes possessed, drove them entirely out of the kingdom; for which service the Swedes elected him their king.

As the bishops and clergy had shewn themselves to be the greatest enemies to Gustavus, he therefore introduced the Lutheran doctrines, and seized the revenues of the church, most of which he appropriated to the service of the state, and was thereby enabled to ease the people of their taxes, which rendered him exceedingly popular. He was crowned at Upsal in the year 1528, but his reign was frequently disturbed by conspiracies and insurrections, excited by the clergy; and when these were quelled, the Danes invaded the kingdom, endeavouring to recover the dominion of Sweden; but Gustavus proved successful both against foreign and domestic enemies; and his eldest son, Erick Augustus, by Catherine daughter of Magnus duke of Saxe Laurenburg, was declared his successor, and the crown made hereditary by the states in 1544; and at the same time the catholic religion was abolished, and the Lutheran religion established, for the maintaining whereof future sovereigns were always sworn. After this, Gustavus reigned in peace, except that the Russians made an incursion into Finland, and were repulsed.

Though the king and states had settled the succession upon Erick, he gave some part of his territories as an appendage to his younger sons John, Magnus, and Charles; and died in the year 1559, when his eldest son was preparing to embark for England, in order to court queen Elizabeth; but having some apprehension that the government would be disturbed, in his absence, by his ambitious brothers, he did not think fit to undertake the voyage at this time. He made another attempt afterwards to pay his addresses to the queen of England; but the wind being contrary, he was driven back again to the coast of Sweden, which he looked upon as ominous, and never made a third attempt to visit her majesty. In the mean time the Livonians being divided about the choice of a sovereign, one party called in the Poles, another chose to submit to the Russians, and a third adhered to the Swedes; and these rivals at length seized each of them a part of the country, Revel and its district being possessed by the Swedes.

Erick still proposing a great deal of happiness in the married state, courted Mary queen of Scots, also a princess of the house of Lorrain, and the princess Catherine of the house of Hesse, but did not succeed in any; and his brother John marrying the lady Catherine, a Polish princess, the king appears to have been so much incensed at the repulses he had met with himself, or at the success of his brother, that he thought it a sufficient reason to declare war against him, and laying siege to his castle of Abo, made

him prisoner, and caused him to be condemned to death, though he changed his sentence into perpetual imprisonment. The Poles thereupon entered into an alliance with the Danes and Rubeckers, in behalf of prince John, and his own subjects were so disgusted with the king's conduct, that they appeared ripe for an insurrection. Erick, however, defended himself against all his enemies, but abandoning himself to his pleasures, and leaving the kingdom to be governed by a favourite, who massacred the family of the Stures, that were of the royal blood, under pretence they were in a conspiracy against the crown, the people broke out into a rebellion, and he was compelled to release his brother John out of prison to appease them; however, insisting afterwards that his brothers should deliver up the countries their father had settled upon them, the people took up arms again in behalf of those princes, made Erick a prisoner, and he died in prison, supposed to have been poisoned.

This was the end of that mad son of Gustavus Ericson, who delivered Sweden from the tyranny of the Danes. He was succeeded by his brother John, who, endeavouring to restore the Roman Catholic religion, met with great opposition; but dying in the year 1592, he was succeeded by his son Sigismund, then upon the throne of Poland; but the states insisting on the restoration of the Protestant religion before he was crowned, he affirmed, that the kingdom was hereditary and that none had a right to put terms or conditions upon him; and commanded that one church in every town should be reserved for the use of the Roman Catholics: he declared also, that he would be crowned by the pope's nuncio, who attended him from Poland.

Hereupon the states raised forces, and being joined by prince Charles, the king's uncle, compelled him to submit to the terms they proposed, and he was thereupon crowned by the protestant bishop of Strengthness. Determining, however, to break through the engagement he had entered into for the establishment of the Protestant religion, he sent for forces out of Poland, and when he found the Swedes were not to be frightened by his threats of introducing foreign troops, he returned to Poland, and the states thereupon declared his uncle, prince Charles, regent of Sweden, and a war commenced between Charles and Sigismund, in which several battles were fought. The states at length excluded Sigismund and his posterity from the crown of Sweden, and advanced his uncle Charles to that throne, settling the succession in his family, in 1604.

This prince, soon after his accession, embarked a body of troops, and making a descent in Livonia, engaged the Poles, in which war he proved unsuccessful; and while he was at war with the Poles, the Danes invaded his territories in Sweden, and greatly distressed him, as the Russians did on the side of Livonia; when prince Gustavus his son, then but seventeen years of age, afterwards the celebrated king Gustavus Adolphus, defeated the Danes, and gave a surprising turn to the Swedish affairs; and his father, king Charles, dying the next year, 1611, was succeeded by his son Gustavus Adolphus, then eighteen years of age; when, by the consent of the states, he took upon him the administration of the government, though his father had appointed queen Christina his mother to be regent till he came of age.

Gustavus finding his kingdom involved in an unfortunate war with the Danes and Russians, purchased a peace with the Danes, in 1613, at the price of a million of crowns; and carried on the war against the Russians, over whom he was victorious in several battles; and at the peace that ensued, they yielded up Kexholm and Ingermania to the Swedes. The truce which had been made with Poland, being expired, he invaded their dominions in Livonia, took the important town of Riga, and made himself master of that whole province: he afterwards invaded Prussia, took Elbing, Marienburg, and several other towns, which were confirmed to Sweden by a treaty concluded not long after. In this war, the Poles were assisted by the Germans, which probably induced Gustavus to carry the war into Germany, added to the invitation the Protestants gave him to come over to their assistance.

In the year 1630, he embarked his army, with which he invaded Pomerania; and advancing to the capital city of Stetin, the duke of Pomerania admitted his troops into that city, and entered into alliance with him, as did also the archbishop of Bremen, the duke of Lunenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, and most of the Protestant princes of Germany, in hopes of his protection against their Catholic persecutors. The French also entered into an alliance with the Swedes, and agreed to pay them an annual subsidy of four hundred thousand crowns.

The Swedes, in 1631, made themselves masters of several other towns in Germany: and the great city of Magdeburg declared for them, which being besieged by Tilly, the Austrian general, Gustavus advanced towards it in order to attempt the relief of the place, expecting to be joined by the elector of Saxony; but that cautious prince not thinking fit to break with the Austrians, the opportunity was lost; Magdeburg was taken by storm, the imperial general massacred forty thousand of the inhabitants, and burnt the town down to the ground, nothing being left standing but the cathedral church. The same year Charles I. king of England, sent six thousand men, under the command of the marquis of Hamilton; but the greatest part of these, landing in Pomerania, were carried off by a kind of pestilence.

The Austrian general then marched into the electorate of Saxony, and made himself master of the city of Leipzig; whereupon the elector intreated king Gustavus to come to his assistance, which he at length complied with, though he seemed to resent the elector's not joining him during the siege of Magdeburg. Their forces were no sooner joined, but the king gave battle to the Austrians, killed about eight thousand of them, took five thousand prisoners, with upwards of a hundred colours and standards. The king afterwards marched into Franconia, where he took several strong towns; from thence he advanced to the palatinate, where he defeated a body of Spaniards that were come thither to the assistance of the Imperialists, and the towns of Openheim, Landau, Spire, and Germersheim submitted to him. The Saxon troops, in the mean time, made themselves masters of Prague, and other places in Bohemia; but pretending that king Gustavus had an eye upon the imperial throne, they refused to advance into Austria: at the same time the Austrians were entirely dispossessed of all the towns bordering on the Baltick.

Gustavus, in the beginning of the year 1632, obtained another victory over the Spaniards in the palatinate, after which he marched into Suabia, in search of count Tilly, who fled before him, leaving him almost entire master of that country. Tilly at length entrenched himself on the river Lech, where being attacked by the Swedes, that general was mortally wounded by a cannon-ball, of which wound he died some few days after. The king then laid the duchy of Bavaria under contributions, and coming before Munich, that capital was surrendered to him.

In the mean time the Imperialists having driven the Saxons out of Bohemia, and entered Saxony, the elector entreated the king to come to his assistance; he left Bavaria, therefore, and joined the Saxons; soon after which, a general battle was fought in the plains of Lutzen, near Leipzig; and the Swedes made themselves masters of the cannon of the Imperialists; but their horse being stopped by a small river, Gustavus, to encourage his men to attempt the passing it, advancing at the head of the cavalry, was soon after found dead on the other side of the river, having been shot through the back, which was generally thought to have been done by some pretended friend: but notwithstanding the loss of their great leader, the Swedish generals behaved so well, that they obtained a complete victory, and the war continued many years afterwards, in which the Swedes were generally victorious, notwithstanding the Saxons and some other German princes changed sides, and adhered to the Austrians: but the assistance the Swedes received from the French was more than an equivalent for the desertion of the German princes.

Gustavus Adolphus left only one daughter, namely the princess Christina, who was proclaimed queen of Sweden on the death of her father, being then but six years of age; whereupon the diet of Sweden determined, that the regency should be committed to the great officers, who behaved with that conduct and fidelity, that the kingdom appeared in a flourishing condition during her minority, notwithstanding they were engaged in a war with such potent enemies; and, at length, concluded a peace upon honourable terms, in 1648, usually called, The Treaty of Westphalia. By which treaty, the duchies of Bremen and Verden, the best part of Pomerania, and the isle of Rugen, the city of Wismar, and the duchy of Deuxponts in the palatinate, were allotted to Sweden and five million of crowns were given them towards the expences they had been at in these wars. Queen Christina, one of the greatest geniuses of the age, and one of the most learned of her sex, courted by all the princes of Europe, and in the highest reputation for her equitable administration, having reigned till the year 1654, resigned the crown in favour of her nephew Charles Gustavus, reserving only a pension

pension for the support of her dignity. After which she professed herself a Roman-Catholic, and retired to a convent in Rome, where she acquired universal esteem by her works of piety and benevolence.

As the war still continued between Sweden and Poland, Charles Gustavus (Charles X.) marched in person into Poland, and was so successful, that he obliged John Casimir, their king, to quit the kingdom, and take refuge in Silesia; and the Poles took an oath of allegiance to Charles; but he marching into Silesia, the Poles revolted and obtained some advantages over the Swedish forces: the elector of Brandenburg joining Charles about this time, they obtained a complete victory over the Poles near Warsaw, and were in a fair way of making an intire conquest of that kingdom, when the Danes declared war against him, and he was obliged to march that way with the greatest part of the army. The Baltick Sea being frozen over at that time, he marched over the ice into Holstein, and caused his artillery to be drawn after him the same way: a thing that never was attempted before by any of the northern princes. The Danes were so amazed at this march, that they immediately desired to treat, and were content to yield up to the Swedes the provinces of Schonen, Halland, and Bleking, with the island of Bornholm. This was called the peace of Roschild, at which place, the plenipotentiaries met, in 1658, and the Danes have ever since been expelled from the continent of Sweden. But we must not omit to observe, that the Danes having given king Charles some reason to suspect that they did not intend to perform those articles, he invaded the island of Zealand, and laid siege to the capital city of Copenhagen; but the Dutch coming to the assistance of the Danes, obtained a victory over the Swedish fleet, and compelled Charles to raise the siege. The Imperialists, Brandenburgers, and Poles, also entered into a confederacy against Sweden, and obtained a victory over their army at Nyburg; and while king Charles was levying another to oppose them, he was taken ill of a fever and died, on the 23d of February 1660, leaving only one son, named Charles, then about five years of age.

During the minority of Charles, the administration of affairs was committed to his mother, the queen dowager, and five great officers of the crown, who finding it necessary to be at peace with their neighbours, concluded a treaty, in May 1660, with the Poles, at the abbey of Oliva near Dantzick, whereby the Poles relinquished their claim to Livonia, and left the Swedes in the entire possession of that province; and in the same month they concluded a peace with Denmark, on the same conditions they had agreed on at Roschild; only the Swedes ceded the island of Bornholm, and the city and territory of Drontheim in Norway, to the Danes.

After these transactions the Swedes entered into a treaty with England and Holland against France, called the triple alliance. On the commencement of the war, in 1674, they entered into an alliance with France, and invaded Brandenburg; but their forces were defeated by that elector, who made himself master of most of their territories in Pomerania, while the duke of Zell reduced Bremen and Verden, and the Danes recovered several towns in Schonen; but the latter being afterwards defeated in several battles, they were compelled to make a separate peace with Sweden at St. Germain's, which was succeeded by the treaty of Nimeguen, in 1678, whereby all the territories the Swedes had lost in this war were restored to them; and king Charles married Ulrica Eleonora, sister to the king of Denmark.

The young king had been declared of age, in the year 1672; and the states soon after made him as absolute as any prince in Europe, declaring, that the king received his crown from God, and was accountable to none but God for his actions, resigning their share in the government entirely in his hands. He soon made use of the powers they had invested him with, to resume all the grants his predecessors had made of the crown lands, and erected a court for enquiring into such misdemeanours as had been committed by the great lords, or any other of his wealthy subjects, and replenished his treasury by the fines they were condemned in, whereby many of the senators and great officers, civil and military, were reduced to great distress. He also lowered the coin, and obliged the creditors of the government to be content with half the money that was due to them, by setting a double value upon every piece, paying only the value of half a crown, where a crown was due. He seems to have made peace with all his neighbours, in order to make war upon the liberties and property of his subjects. The last considerable tran-

saction he was concerned in, was his mediation between the confederates and France, and he had the honour of seeing a treaty of peace nearly concluded between those powers, before his death, which happened in the month of April 1697, leaving one son, named Charles, born the 17th of June 1682, and two daughters, viz. Hedwick Sophia, born in 1681, and afterwards married to the duke of Holstein; and Ulrica Eleonora, born in 1688, and married to Frederick, hereditary prince of Hesse (afterwards elected king of Sweden) who died in 1741, without issue.

As the young prince, Charles XII. was but sixteen years of age at the death of his father, his grandmother, the queen dowager, was appointed regent by the late king, till his son should be completely eighteen; but he was, however, declared major by the senate, in November 1697, though he was not then sixteen, and the same year saw the peace of Ryfwick concluded under his mediation.

In the mean time the king of Denmark continued to encroach on the territories of the duke of Holstein, who had married Charles's eldest sister, the princess Hedwick Sophia; Charles, therefore, interposed in the duke's behalf, and a treaty was entered upon to adjust this affair, which lasted near two years; but the Dane not being disposed to do the duke justice, and knowing that the Swedes were too powerful for him, if he should enter into a war singly, he secretly confederated with Augustus king of Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, and ventured to invade Holstein again, while the king of Poland invaded Livonia on the south, as the czar did on the west. The maritime powers observing this flame kindling in the north, and concluding they must expect no assistance from any of these princes, in case of a rupture with France, which was expected every day, they sent a fleet into the Baltick, to propose pacific measures to his Danish majesty, which that prince refusing to listen to, the confederate fleet blocked up Copenhagen by sea, while Charles transported his army into the island of Zeland, laid siege to Copenhagen by land, and compelled the Danes, in August 1700, to conclude a peace with him at Travendal.

While the siege of Copenhagen was carrying on, Peter, czar of Muscovy, invaded the province of Ingria, and in October following, laid siege to Narva; of which king Charles receiving advice, embarked his army as soon as he had concluded the peace with Denmark, and landing at Pernau in Livonia with eighteen thousand men, he marched with all his horse and four thousand foot to Revel, leaving the rest of his army to follow him with the artillery and baggage: but before they joined him, he fell upon the advanced posts of the Russians, and drove them before him into the Russian camp: their generals imagining the whole Swedish army had been with him, drew up their men in order of battle, and defended themselves for some time: but the king entering the Russian entrenchments in that part of the camp, where he expected to have met the czar, they all fled before they knew what forces the king had with him. And, indeed, the czar was not in the camp, but gone to assemble another army, in order to surround the Swedes, not doubting, but he should have made them all prisoners. But, surely, such a panic never possessed an army; some thousands of the Russians lost their lives, without attempting to defend themselves, and thirty thousand of them, with the generals at their head, came and implored the king's mercy, laying down their arms at his feet, the Swedes not losing above one thousand five hundred men in all the engagement. It is said, indeed, that the Russian army amounted to one hundred thousand men, and there is no doubt but they vastly out-numbered the Swedes: but relations, concerning the events of war, are usually much magnified.

The king of Poland, who lay before Riga, raised the siege of that place, when he understood Charles was marching that way, leaving his army encamped on the south shore of the river Dwina, to defend the frontiers of Poland against the Swedes. This army being commanded by the duke of Courland, a most accomplished general, king Charles met with much greater opposition than he had done at Narva, though the enemy's forces were not more numerous than his own. The Saxon troops fought very bravely and contended long for victory; but king Charles proved victorious, and marched into Courland, of which the duke was sovereign, where he laid that province under contribution. From thence he marched into Lithuania, where leaving a part of his forces to assist Saphica against prince Oginski (these great men having drawn the whole province into a kind of civil war) he marched with the rest to the capital city of Warsaw, which opened her gates to him;

king Augustus and his friends being fled towards Cracow. Here he declared to the cardinal primate, who came to attend him, that he would never give peace to Poland till they had elected another king, and began his march towards Cracow; which Augustus being acquainted with, assembled his Saxon forces, and the Poles in his interest, determined to give the Swedes battle.

The two armies met in the plains of Clissaw, almost in the midway between Warsaw and Cracow, on the 19th of July 1702. The king of Poland's army consisted of twenty-four thousand men, Poles and Saxons; and that of the Swedes is said not to have been more than twelve thousand. The young duke of Holstein, a prince of great merit, who commanded the Swedish horse, was killed by a cannon ball, on the first discharge of the Saxon artillery. The king being told he was dead, shed some tears, and then covering his face a short time, spurred his horse, and charged the enemy at the head of his guards. The king of Poland, on the other hand, thrice led on his troops to the charge, and fought like a prince whose crown was at stake; but was at length forced to submit to the superior fortune of Charles, who gained a complete victory, made himself master of the Saxon camp, colours, artillery, baggage, and military chest, and, without resting, pursued Augustus as he fled towards Cracow, who, not thinking himself secure, left that city before king Charles arrived there. The citizens shutting their gates against the conqueror, he forced his way into the town, and took the castle by storm, obliging the townsmen to pay him large contributions; but he made his soldiers observe such exact discipline, that they were not suffered to plunder any of the inhabitants.

Soon after this, Charles left Cracow, and pursued Augustus very closely; but had not advanced far from the city, before his horse threw him, and broke his thigh; whereupon he was carried back to Cracow, and confined to his bed six weeks, the party of Augustus giving out that he was dead; and a diet being assembled at Lublin, most of the grandees of Poland came in and took the oaths of allegiance to king Augustus. In this oath, they declared, that they never had, nor ever would, attempt any thing against this prince; and the primate coming in among the rest, Augustus excused his taking the first part of the oath, at which the cardinal blushed, but took the latter part of it. The result of the diet was, that they would maintain an army of fifty thousand men in defence of Augustus, and allow Charles but six weeks time to consider whether he intended peace or war; but that prince having received a reinforcement of six thousand horse and eight thousand foot from Sweden, overturned all their schemes, and fell upon a body of Saxons, commanded by general Stenau, who were encamped on the opposite side of the river Bug, swimming his horse over that river; which so terrified the Saxons, that most of them fled without waiting the attack. The city of Thorn, still holding out against the Swedes, the king laid siege to it, and, as he wore a plain dress, was never singled out by the enemy's gunners; but general Lieven, in a laced coat, walking with him, the king perceived the shot fly very thick, and directed the general to walk behind him; which the general refusing, because the king would then be most exposed to the shot, his majesty took the general by the arm, and compelled him to walk behind him; which he had no sooner done, but a cannon-ball, which came in flank, struck the general. This very much confirmed the king in the notion he entertained of predestination; for his majesty would have been in the very place where the general stood, if he had not removed him in that instant, with a design to preserve him.

Rovel, the governor of Thorn, made a brave defence against the victorious Swedes for a month; but was then obliged to surrender at discretion. The king was so well pleased with the conduct and courage that governor had expressed in defence of this town, that he gave him his own sword, when he was brought prisoner before him, and presented him with a sum of money. He never failed to reward valour, even in those who were enemies to him.

After this, the king next marched to Elbing, which city not opening their gates to him so soon as he expected, he obliged them to raise him two hundred and sixty thousand crowns; and thus he made the conquered towns contribute so largely to the charges of the war that his own kingdom was very little burthened with taxes; whereas other generals frequently beggar their own country while they enlarge their conquests.

During these transactions, the cardinal primate, who had a little before renewed his oaths of allegiance to king Augustus, assembled the states of the kingdom at Warsaw,

the 14th of February, 1704, and declared, that this same Augustus, elector of Saxony, had rendered himself incapable of wearing the crown of Poland; and the states immediately declared, that the throne was vacant, at least such of them as were assembled on this occasion; for Augustus had still many friends who refused to appear.

The assembly at Warsaw, before they separated, received a letter from the king of Sweden, desiring they would make choice of prince James Sobieski for their king, who was the son of John Sobieski, their late king, who relieved Vienna. This prince was then at Breslau in Silesia, and received the compliments of some of the Poles on this occasion; but as he was one day hunting within a little way of that city with his brother prince Constantine, they were both surprized by thirty Saxon troopers, that king Augustus had sent to lie in ambuscade, and carried off to Leipsick in Saxony. About the same time, Renchild the Swedish general was very near surprizing king Augustus, whom he hunted from place to place, as he would have done a wild beast; but the king had the good fortune to escape him, and retired into Saxony. Charles hereupon offered the crown of Poland to prince Alexander, the brother of Sobieski; but he refused it, looking upon that crown to be his eldest brother's right. Charles was then advised by count Piper his prime minister, by Stanislaus, and all the poles of his party, to accept the crown of Poland himself; but his Swedish majesty had so little ambition, that he would not comply with the importunity of his friends, though the kingdom was at that time entirely in his power.

Stanislaus, whom Charles recommended to the choice of the Poles, seems to have been a prince of great virtue and merit, which were the principal motives Charles had to advance him to the throne. He is also said to have been endued with great courage, abstemious like himself, extremely temperate, hospitable, and generous to his vassals and dependants, inasmuch that he was almost adored, and esteemed in every respect the properest person to succeed to that throne. He was elected by the diet at Warsaw, on the 12th of July 1704, in the absence of the cardinal primate, who still pretended to be neuter; whereupon Stanislaus was crowned by the bishop of Posenania, and the primate, as well as the rest of the great officers, were obliged to come and take the oaths of allegiance to him; which was no sooner effected, than the king of Sweden marched into the south of Poland, and took the town of Lemburgh, or Leopold, capital of that part of the kingdom, where Augustus had lodged most of his treasures, and Charles met with no less than four hundred chests full of gold and silver in this place.

While Charles was engaged in this fortunate expedition, Stanislaus remained at Warsaw with a garrison of six thousand Polanders and one thousand five hundred Swedes; but having received advice that Augustus was marching towards that city at the head of twenty thousand men, and being sensible he could not defend himself at Warsaw, which was in a manner an open town, he sent away his family into his own palatinate of Posenania. The cardinal primate flew into Prussia, and most of them that were of the party of Stanislaus abandoned the place. The new king fled from his capital within six weeks after he had been proclaimed, and joined Charles near Lemburgh; only the bishop of Posenania, who crowned him, was left behind, being fallen sick, and not able to travel. The Swedish garrison retired into the castle, soon after which Augustus entered the city as a conqueror, and not only demanded a contribution from all the inhabitants in general, but suffered his soldiers to plunder the primate's palace, and the houses of all the great men who adhered to Stanislaus: the bishop of Posenania, after seeing his palace plundered, was carried away into Saxony, where he died, and the Swedes in the castle were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war, which Charles was no sooner acquainted with, than he prepared to engage the Saxons, who fled before him, and at length overtaking general Sculemberg, who commanded the greatest body of Saxon troops, it was with difficulty that general made his escape from him into Silesia, losing the greatest part of his army in the retreat, in which, however, he displayed a great deal of generalship. Augustus, having now no forces capable of making head against Charles, abandoned Poland a second time, and shut himself up in Dresden, the capital of his German dominions, which gave an opportunity to Stanislaus to resort to Warsaw again, where he was solemnly crowned on the 4th of October, 1705, by the archbishop of Lemburgh, assisted by several other prelates, the cardinal prelate dying at Dantzick about this time,

time, having written a letter first to king Augustus, to beg his pardon for his treacherous conduct towards that prince.

In the mean time the czar having sent a great reinforcement of troops into Poland, to the assistance of his friend and ally king Augustus, and Schulemburg, the Saxon general, having raised another army in Saxony, with which he joined the Russians, a battle was fought at Frauenstedt, on the 12th of February, 1706, wherein the Saxons and Russians were again defeated by the Swedes; the Russians threw down their arms and begged for mercy, but the Swedish general, Renschild, ordered them all to be put to death in cold blood, to revenge the barbarities the czar had committed in Livonia; for the czar taking advantage of the king of Sweden's absence from that province, had reduced most part of it, taken the chief towns, massacred great numbers of the inhabitants, and sent the rest in chains to the remotest part of his dominions.

The king of Sweden having driven both the Russians and Saxons out of Poland, bent his march towards the river Oder, in order to enter Saxony, which induced the diet of the empire to declare him their enemy, in case he passed the Oder; the king, however, continued his march, and entering the frontiers of Saxony, the inhabitants immediately fled from their houses, till his Swedish majesty published a proclamation to inform them, that all who returned to their houses, and paid the contributions he required, should be treated as his subjects, but to the rest he should give no quarter; and the people thereupon returned to their houses.

The army being encamped at Altranstedt, near Leipzig, Charles summoned the states of Saxony to meet him there, and bring with them an account of the revenues of the electorate, which having perused, he imposed on them a tax or contribution of six hundred and twenty-five thousand rix dollars (crowns) a month, besides which he obliged them to supply every one of the soldiers with two pounds of meat, two pounds of bread, two pots of beer, and four pence a day, with forage for their horses; then he ordered every house, in which any of his soldiers were quartered, to send him certificates of the soldiers behaviour every month, without which the soldier was not to receive his pay. He assigned inspectors also to visit every house, and enquire if his soldiers had committed any irregularities, and punish them as they deserved; and under such an exact discipline were his soldiers, that when a town was taken by storm, they durst not seize upon the plunder without leave: and so well satisfied were the people with their security, while the Swedish forces remained in Saxony, that the great annual fairs were held at Leipzig, without interruption, as before.

Augustus having sent to the conqueror to beg a peace on his own terms, he immediately transmitted to him the following articles; viz. I. That Augustus should for ever renounce the crown of Poland, and acknowledge Stanislaus lawful king, and promise never to remount the throne, even after the death of Stanislaus. II. That he renounce all other alliances, especially that of Russia. III. That he release the prince Sobieski, and all his prisoners. IV. That he deliver up all deserters, particularly John Patkul; and that all who have deserted his service and been entertained in the Swedish service shall not be liable to a prosecution.

While this treaty was in agitation, Menzikof, general of the Russians, entered Poland at the head of thirty thousand men and joined Augustus, who had still a body of six thousand Saxons with him; they attacked the Swedish general Maderfield, who commanded ten thousand men near Calish, and obtained a complete victory, for which Augustus sung Te Deum at Warsaw; but in the midst of these rejoicings, Augustus received advice that his plenipotentiaries in Saxony had agreed to the terms above-mentioned, which he found himself obliged to ratify, or see his German dominions ruined as well as Poland: Augustus had several conferences afterwards with Charles, and endeavoured to procure better terms; but Charles was so incensed at the defeat of his forces under Maderfield, that he made them still worse, and obliged Augustus to send Stanislaus the following letter; viz. "Sir and brother, as I ought to regard the directions of the king of Sweden, I cannot avoid congratulating your majesty upon your accession to the crown, though perhaps the advantageous treaty the king of Sweden has lately concluded for your majesty might have excused me from this correspondence; however, I congratulate your majesty, beseeching God that your subjects may be more faithful to you than they have been to me. Augustus, king. Leipzig, April 8, 1707." Augustus was also obliged to order his Saxon subjects not to address him as a king for the future,

and cause his title to be omitted in the prayers used in the churches.

Augustus would fain have procured the escape of Patkul; but in spite of all his endeavours, he was at length delivered up by the governor of Konisling castle in Saxony, to four Swedish officers, who carried him to the king of Sweden's quarters at Altranstedt, where he remained three months in chains, till he was tried by a council of war, and condemned to be broke alive upon the wheel, the usual punishment for traitors in Sweden; for Patkul was a native of Livonia, and consequently a subject of Sweden, and was one of the five deputies sent with a memorial to Charles XI. king of Sweden, to represent to that prince the hardships the Livonians lay under, by the invasion of their liberties, and to solicit redress; which was so resented by the then administration, that Patkul was condemned to have his right hand cut off, and afterwards to be beheaded, and his estate confiscated; to avoid which sentence, he fled into Russia, where he was advanced to the highest employments by the czar and Augustus: but Charles XII. was most incensed against him, for being the principal occasion of the invasion of Livonia by the Poles and Russians: it cannot therefore deserve censure, that this prince did not spare him, when he was condemned as a traitor for such atrocious crimes, so many years persisted in.

During the king of Sweden's stay in Saxony, he was attended by ambassadors and ministers from all the powers in Europe; the allies were terribly afraid he would join the French against the confederates. The duke of Marlborough was therefore sent by the British court to sound his intentions, by offering him the mediation between the allies and France; but when he found he had only a design to mortify the emperor for some affronts he had received, and that his present view was the conquest of Russia; and the deposing of the czar, the duke returned well satisfied that the allies would meet with no interruption from the Swedes in carrying on the war against France.

About this time count Zobor, lord chamberlain to the emperor, having spoken very disrespectfully of the king of Sweden, the king demanded that he should be delivered up to be punished as he deserved, which the imperial court found themselves under a necessity of complying with; but the king having kept that minister with him a little while, sent him back to Vienna unhurt. His next demand was, that the house of Austria should grant their protestant subjects in Silesia the liberties and privileges they were entitled to by the treaty of Westphalia; and the Lutherans had thereupon upwards of an hundred churches resigned to them, which the Roman Catholics had taken from them, and were allowed to profess their religion publicly; (but that king was no sooner incapable of affording the Silesians his protection, than the Austrians revived the persecution of the Protestants again.) And now Charles having obtained for the Protestants the restoration of their rights, he began his march towards Poland, and as he passed by Dresden made Augustus a short visit, attended only by two or three gentlemen of his court, and having breakfasted with that prince, and viewed the fortifications of the city, returned to his army, who were in great pain for him, when they knew he had put himself into the power of his mortal enemy, and were overjoyed when they saw him return in safety.

Charles marched out of Saxony into Poland in September, 1707, at the head of forty-three thousand men, and he had another army of twenty thousand men in Poland, commanded by count Lewenhaupt. The czar was then with his army in Lithuania, but retired to the confines of Russia as Charles advanced; the grand seignior about this time sent the king of Sweden a solemn embassy, and presented him with an hundred Swedish soldiers the Tartars had taken. He desired the alliance of the Swedes and Poles, that they might make a diversion in his favour whenever he should be engaged in war with the emperors of Germany or Russia: the king of Sweden found Poland so destroyed by the Russians, that he was forced to remain there a year before he could furnish himself with supplies to enter upon his grand design of invading Russia, and then he followed the czar towards the Ukrain, who had assembled most of his forces on that side to reduce the Cossacks, commanded by their general Mazeppa, who had promised the king of Sweden to join him whenever he should march that way.

Charles, apprehending the Cossacks might be suppressed by the Russians before he arrived, marched with great expedition towards Kiof on the Boristhenes, leaving general Lewenhaupt to follow him with a body of sixteen thousand

thousand men, and convey a train of artillery, and several thousand waggons loaden with ammunition and provisions; but Lewenhaupt being surrounded in his march by a numerous army of Russians, commanded by the czar in person, after he had defended himself three days, was at last compelled to retire, having lost the greatest part of his army, and all his artillery, ammunition and provisions, and with great difficulty joined the king with the remainder of his troops, which did not amount to more than four or five thousand.

Mazeppa also having been defeated by the czar's forces, joined the king with very few troops; and now the communication being cut off between Poland and Russia, Charles could receive neither recruits nor provisions, and great part of his army perished by hard marches, and the rigour of the season. In the winter of 1709, he lost, as is reported, two thousand men in one day, and in April following his army did not amount to eighteen thousand men, besides Cossacks or Tartars of the Ukrain. In this condition, about the latter end of May, he laid siege to Pultowa, which lies in the latitude of fifty, about forty miles east of the Boristhenes, in which the czar had a great magazine, by the taking whereof Charles hoped to furnish himself with provisions, and open a way to Muscovy; but he was defeated at Pultowa, and his whole army entirely cut off or made prisoners, except three or four hundred horse, with which he escaped to Bender in Turkey. He there gave signal proofs of a desperate intrepidity, as incapable of fear as void of discretion, having with a handful of men performed prodigies of personal valour against the whole force of Russia: he was at length made prisoner, and peace being ratified, returned to Sweden. His passion for war hurrying him into fresh broils, he met his death by a cannon-ball at the siege of Frederichshall, anno 1718, very fortunately for the peace of Europe.

The peculiarity of character which distinguished this prince is strongly depicted by M. de Voltaire. No dangers, however sudden or imminent, says this writer, ever occasioned in him the least dismay, even when they have shaken the constancy of the firmest among his followers: he seems, in short, to have been a man divested of the smallest particle of fear; and the manner in which he is related to have endured cold and hunger shew him to be a prodigy of strength as well as courage. His rapid successes against the combined force of Denmark, Poland, and Russia, prove him to be no ordinary man; but although they astonished all Europe, yet in their consequences they were fatal to the kingdom which he governed. A strong resentment against the unprovoked attacks made upon him, led him to meditate enterprizes against his enemies, extravagant and impracticable in their nature, and the cool and undimmed perseverance of his great adversary, the czar Peter, at length prevailed over his ill-directed ardour.

On Charles's death, his sister Ulrica Eleonora ascended the throne, by the free election of the states; but first gave up all pretensions to arbitrary power; and in 1720, by consent of the diet, transferred the government to her husband Frederic, hereditary prince of Hesse Cassel. King Frederic having no issue, the states, in 1743, nominated Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstein, and bishop of Eutin, his successor, who accordingly, on the decease of Frederic, assumed the reins of government on the 5th of April, 1751.

The senate had been gradually advancing in power for several years; the encroachments made by that body on the royal power were so considerable, that the condition of the king of Sweden became extremely disagreeable; he found his authority disputed, and his person treated with disrespect by an arbitrary supercilious senate. Frederic having applied to this body to convoke an extraordinary diet, in order to examine into the causes of the many heavy grievances which oppressed the kingdom, found the power of the latter too predominant to accomplish his purpose, and had the further mortification to see it proceed to some unconstitutional acts which directly encroached on his prerogative. Fully determined to wrest from the senate their assumed power, and to recover that participation of authority which the constitution had assigned to the crown, he proceeded to a measure both bold and decisive. On the thirteen of December, 1768, he signed a declaration, by which he formally abdicated the crown of Sweden; and by giving public notice throughout his dominions of this step, at once suspended all the functions of government. The senate felt their authority insufficient to counteract such a measure, for their orders were disputed by all the colleges of state, who had ceased to transact the business of their several departments. The magistrates of Stockholm, agreeable to the form of govern-

ment, were proceeding to convoke the order of burghers, which compelled the senate to consent to the desired assembly of the diet, and the king's concurrence was requested to confirm the proclamation for that purpose, which being given, he resumed the reins of government. At the meeting of the diet, which followed on April 19, 1769, though it coincided in some particulars with the king's views, yet it was far from effecting every thing which he wished.

On February 12, 1771, the king of Sweden died, and was succeeded by Gustavus the prince royal, then twenty-five years of age. The accession of this young prince to the throne, with the prepossessions of the people strongly in his favour, was a favourable period for extending the power of the crown by the reduction of that of the senate. An aristocracy naturally and rapidly degenerates into despotism; the yoke of which is rendered more intolerable to a people in proportion as the oppressions of a number of tyrants are more grievous than those of a single one. The new king found his people divided into two great political parties, distinguished by the names of hats and caps; the former espoused the interest of the court, the latter the country or patriotic party.

The most masterly strokes of policy, as well as the most profound dissimulation were used by this monarch to circumvent and destroy the influence of the senate. The people were grievously oppressed; for besides the rigorous exactions made on the common people by their rulers, they suffered every calamity which a year of great scarcity naturally occasions. The army was devoted to his interest, and his two brothers, prince Charles and prince Frederic Augustus, each commanded a body of troops.

In 1772, whilst the king was amusing the senate at Stockholm with the most warm and specious professions of disinterestedness, and of his wishes to be thought only the first citizen of a free country, an insurrection of the military happened at Christianstadt in the province of Scania; this was set on foot by one Hellichins, who commanded there. The plea made use of to justify it was, the tyranny and oppression of the governing powers. Prince Charles, who was purposely in those parts, made this a pretence to assemble the troops under his command, whilst his brother, who was at Ostrogothia, put himself at the same time at the head of the troops in those parts.

The senate were much alarmed at these proceedings, whilst the king, with the most consummate dissimulation, expressed his resentment against the insurgents, and his zeal to repress them, at the same time, by stationing the military force in Stockholm so as to surround the senate-house, he effectually controuled the deliberations carried on there. In this exigency the senate found themselves totally abandoned by the soldiery, who one and all took oaths of allegiance to the king, who being thus supported, was enabled to accomplish a great and almost unparalleled revolution; and to deprive an extensive nation of its liberties in a single morning, without bloodshed, without noise, without tumult, and without opposition; while the people flocked together with as much indifference and tranquillity as if it had only been to partake of some diversion.

After this, the king repaired to the castle, and, having sent for the foreign ministers, who had retreated there during the commotion, informed them, that it was with tears in his eyes he had agreed to the measure of which they were witnesses, and which he was forced to take for the security of his person, as well as of the state, which were both equally in danger. He entreated them to assure their respective courts, that his motives, when made known, would justify him in the eyes of all Europe; that this affair should not be productive of any alteration in his conduct with respect to other powers; and to be assured, that what he had done was for the welfare of his people, and the maintenance of true liberty among them.

Next morning the king received the oath of the magistrates, the burghers, and the college of Stockholm, by whom they were bound to obey him only, and not the senate, or their deputies; and a book was opened in one of the apartments of the palace, wherein all those in general were to subscribe their names, who were willing to take the oath of fidelity. The senators, and great officers, who refused to take the oaths, were all strictly confined. among whom were baron Rudbeck, count Hemenic, the chief magistrate Soenderbald, the fiscal Lengerstroem, the king's secretary Helsingius, the secretaries of the nobles, baron Cederstroem, count Kalling, and general Strusenfeldt, the three secretaries of the clergy, the two of the burghers, and the two secretaries belonging to the order of peasants. These were soon after soon acquainted by the king,

king, that they must take their final resolution, either to swear to the new form of government, or to quit the kingdom for ever, and to give a categorical answer within a month; and the following day (August 21) being appointed for abolishing the old form of government, and the establishing of the new, the king assembled all the states in a plenum plenum for that purpose.

Such decisive measures were taken for the completion of this great act, as committed nothing to chance, or to the caprice of fortune. A large detachment of the guards took possession in the morning of the square where the house of nobles stands; the palace was invested on every side with troops; all the garrison was under arms; and every thing carried on not only the appearance of war, but of the immediate attack of an enemy; while cannon were brought in and planted in the great court of the hall where the states were assembled. Being thus conveniently secured in this place of terrors, it was not a matter of much consideration, whether they should accede to the propositions that were to be made to them.

The king opened the scene, by entering the hall in all his regalia; soon after which, having the silver hammer of Gustavus Adolphus in his hand, he made himself the signal for silence, an office which was usually executed by a senator; but none of that body were in the present assembly. The king then made a long speech to the states, in which he represented the deplorable state to which the nation was reduced by the two great factions that divided the people; that by this means they were severed as it were into two separate nations, who united only in the mangling their country; that the rancour, revenge, and persecution that proceeded from this state of discord, was productive of new revolutions, that grew at length into a periodical disease, which disfigured the whole commonwealth; that commotions, which shook the realm, sprung from the ambition of a few; that streams of blood had been poured, sometimes by one party, and sometimes by another; and that the people were always the sacrifices to quarrels, in the event of which they had but little concern.

He further observed, that the only end of their rulers had been to fortify their own power; and that every thing had of necessity been adapted to that purpose; that where the law was clear, the letter of it had been perverted; and where it had been palpably repugnant, it had been broken through. That nothing had been sacred to a people inflamed with hatred and revenge; and that the seeds of confusion had in the end extended so far, that it became a declared opinion, that a majority was above the law; and owned no restraint but its own pleasure. That thus liberty, the noblest of the rights of men, had been transformed into an unsupportable aristocratical tyranny, in the hands of the ruling party; which was itself enslaved, and led at pleasure by a very small number of its body. That the notice of a new assembly of the states made every one tremble; that, far from considering how the affairs of the nation might be best transacted, they were only busied in getting together a majority for their party, that they might be screened from the insolence and lawless violence of the other.

The king then laid, or insinuated, a charge of the blackest dye. He said, if the interior situation of the realm stood thus endangered, how hideous was its external aspect! "I blush (says he) to speak about it: born a Swede, and now a king of Sweden, it should be an impossibility for me to believe that foreign schemes should govern Swedish men; and that the basest means should have been employed for that purpose. You know what it is I mean: my blushes ought to make you deeply sensible into what contempt the kingdom has been thrown by your quarrels."

Then the king made a solemn renunciation upon oath of all absolute sovereignty and power, and that he did not even desire or wish for it; after which he ordered the new form of government to be read to the states by the secretary of revision. This piece, which is of a great length, consists of fifty-seven articles: the most essential of which

are: That the king is to choose the senate himself: That he is to call the states together when he pleases, and to separate them also when he pleases, after they have at any time continued sitting for three months: That the contributions are to be given by the states: but if not granted within three months, the old ones are to remain: in case of invasion, or pressing necessity the king may impose some taxes for raising money till the states can be assembled: When the states are assembled, they are not to deliberate upon any thing but what the king pleases to lay before them: That the king is to have the sole disposition of the army, navy, and finances, and of all the employments in the state.

The king proceeded, in the next place, to dismiss all the old senators, and to confer the dignity on fifteen noblemen who were well attached to his interest. To shew his attention to the distresses of the people, and to increase the odium thrown on the states, by making them the cause of the famine which prevailed, he directed ten thousand measures of meal of twenty pounds each to be distributed among the common people. A grand deputation from the four orders, consisting of an hundred and twenty persons, waited on the king, to return him thanks for his paternal care, by which the nation had been restored to its true liberty; and to desire that a medal might be struck to commemorate the happy event that had taken place.

The meetings of the diet were, from this time, productive of nothing but compliances in the fullest terms with the king's requisitions: they enabled him to raise extraordinary supplies upon particular occasions, by the help of a secret committee, and constituted him both judge of the exigence and establisher of the means of supply; while the directors of the bank were to compose a secret committee to be consulted on such matters as the king thought proper to lay before them. By these measures, the king has become virtually possessed of all the powers of government, and the states seem thereby to have irrevocably sealed their own doom; for the crown appears to have no motive for convoking a diet any more, unless some very extraordinary change of circumstances takes place, to render it necessary.

That the Swedes should thus tamely endure the overthrow of their constitution, and the loss of their liberties, will ever continue a subject of admiration. The time is not yet beyond the memory of man, when they were emancipated from the most deplorable state of despotism that any nation could groan under. In the reign of Charles XII. they had scarcely a merchant ship upon the ocean; yet such were the happy effects of the subsequent change of government, that notwithstanding the losses they had sustained by his wars, six hundred Swedish ships passed through the sound annually, within twenty years after his death; besides the great trade of the port of Gottenburgh, which lies without the sound, and the internal commerce of the Baltick. They have now surrendered every thing that is most dear to mankind, without the smallest contest. It is more than probable, that within another age, they will afford a fresh conviction to the world, that commerce cannot flourish under an arbitrary government.

This revolution however presents a mirror, which if properly attended to, will exhibit objects of the greatest import to those few states which still retain any vestiges of civil liberty. The prince who has had the resolution to undertake, and the address to effect so arduous an enterprise as the late revolution in Sweden, cannot be supposed to remain long an inconsiderable party in the system of Europe. By his penetration and sagacity, he has in a few months accomplished his designs upon his own kingdom; at twenty-five years of age he has out-plotted the most experienced politicians; he has out-talked the most rigid republicans in his discourses upon liberty, and out-canted the most zealous enthusiasts in his appeals to Heaven. Such a prince, in whom the whole powers of the state center, will probably use strenuous endeavours to recover some share of that rank and consequence to his kingdom which were supported with so much lustre by his predecessors in the last century, and the beginning of the present.

C H A P. IV.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

D E N M A R K.

S E C T. I.

Comprising a General Account of this Kingdom, its Situation and Boundaries, Soil, Climate, Produce, &c. also the Division, Cities, Towns, &c. contained in it; particularly of JUTLAND, properly so called.

THIS kingdom, called in Latin Dania, is one of the most antient in Europe; being composed of several parts, viz. Jutland, including the duchies of Sleswick, which is the continental part; and the islands of the Baltick, which some deem the most considerable portion. The name of Denmark is now given to the whole country.

The continental part of Denmark, namely, Jutland, lies between the fifty-fourth and fifty-ninth degrees of north latitude, and from the eighth to the forty-fifth degree of east longitude, extending from north to south near two hundred and forty miles; the breadth, in some parts, not being above twenty-four miles, and in others near an hundred and eighty. On the south, it is divided from the duchies of Lunenburg and Bremen by the river Elbe; on the east, it is bounded by the Categate and Middle Fort Sound, or Lesser Belt; and the German ocean washes it on the northern or western parts.

On the continent, and in the islands which form part of this kingdom, the soil varies greatly. In the former, there are good pastures, but the latter are too sandy to be fruitful.

In North Jutland the air is sharp and piercing; but on the east side of South Jutland, and in the islands of Funen and Zealand, it is milder and more temperate: in the low and marshy part, in the island of Laaland, the air is thick, moist, and unhealthy. The sudden changes of the winds, indeed, render the weather somewhat variable, but at the same time purge the air of fogs and vapours. The west wind, which frequently blows in these parts, is the most violent.

Denmark is chiefly of a low and level surface, and, except the tract of land about the middle of Jutland, is very fertile; so that the country produces plenty for its inhabitants, and yields every necessary for the support of human life: they breed horned cattle and horses for exportation, and grow a sufficiency of corn for their own support. The sea-coasts, lakes, ponds, rivers, and brooks of this country yield abundance of fish. Denmark produces no wine, no metals, and very little salt. Most of the provinces have wood sufficient for their necessary occasions; but others, having a more scanty supply, are obliged to burn turf. Beech wood, which is the kind most common here, and which is burnt in their stoves, rarifies and cleanses the air, and in the opinion of Mr. Molesworth, prevents the numerous disorders which prey upon the lungs from being much felt in these parts.

We shall give a more particular account of the produce of this kingdom when we come to describe its several provinces and islands.

There are four grand divisions of Denmark; namely, 1. Jutland, properly so called, or North Jutland. 2. The duchy of Sleswick, or South Jutland. 3. The duchy of Holstein. 4. The Danish Islands.

North Jutland is bounded on the south by the duchy of Sleswick, towards the east by the Baltick, the Categate, and the Lesser Belt; and on the north and west, by the German ocean; and is divided into four dioceses, viz. Ripen to the south, Arhusen to the east, Wiburg to the west, and Aalborg to the north.

1. The diocese of Ripen is bounded on the north by those of Arhusen and Wiburg, on the south by the duchy

of Sleswick, and it extends east and west from the Baltick to the German Ocean. It contains thirty prefectorships, or bailiwicks, two hundred and eighty-two parishes, ten royal palaces, an hundred noblemens seats, and seven cities; which are as follow:

Ripen or Rypen, is seated on the river Nipsaw, which, before it comes to this city, divides itself into three branches, the largest of which runs on the north side of the town; the middle branch, which is the smallest, runs on the south of it; the third, also, on the south, but at some distance; they join again a little lower, and fall into the German ocean, three miles below Ripen, making a commodious harbour. This city is twenty-six miles distant from Tunderen towards the north, and twenty-four from Colding to the north-west. It is a place of considerable trade; the neighbouring pastures and fields produce abundance of cattle and corn. Hither are drove almost all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are here shipped off for foreign countries, and especially for Holland: their corn they export into the neighbouring countries, which have occasion for it, all which afford them very great profit.

The city is often exposed to imminent dangers from the tides flowing in with a prodigious violence from the sea, so that the water sometimes comes into the very church-yard of the cathedral, which stands on a hill; and even during the terrible inundation with which Jutland was afflicted in the year 1634, the water rose an ell high in the very cathedral. This place is strong by nature only, without much assistance from art. Towards the west there is a castle, flanked with four bulwarks, after the old fashion, said to have been built in the year 1150. The citizens houses are pretty well built, and the inhabitants were formerly in better circumstances than they are now; but they suffered very much during the wars with Sweden, the city being taken by the Swedes in 1645, but soon after recovered by the Danes. Before the reformation, this was a bishop's see, as it is now of a superintendent or Lutheran bishop. The cathedral is a noble pile, built with free-stone, as well as its steeple, which is square, very high, and covered with lead. It is adorned within with several marble columns, and with the tombs of some kings. There is another church dedicated to St. Catherine; here are also two public schools, for the education of youth in polite literature; and a college for divinity, in the court of the bishop's palace, where there is also a public library.

The city is governed by two burgomasters or consuls, and by a senate, who formerly administered justice with so much severity, that 'the justice of Ripen' was become a proverbial saying, to express a rigorous execution of the laws. The Danish is the common language of the citizens, though there are a great many of them, especially among the merchants, who speak the German tongue.

Colding or Kolding, is an old city mentioned by Ptolemy, and stands on the banks of a little river called Coldinge Aa, which parts North Jutland from the duchy of Sleswick, and falls into a little gulf, thence named the gulf of Colding. De Ville, author of the Travels of Denmark, observes, that this gulf is wrong set down in De Wit's map, which makes it too round at the bottom. Colding is about eleven miles distant from Haderleben to the north. It was burnt down during the civil wars in 1247. In 1268, king Erick VI. redeemed it out of the hands of Erick, duke of Sleswick, and son to king Abel. He built a citadel there, to be, as it were, a bulwark to Denmark, and fortified the town, especially towards the south.

Christian

Christian III. who liked the city very much, on account of its agreeable situation, and wholesome air, built the castle of Arnsburg, above the city, removed thither with his court, and died there January the 1st, 1559. The hospital was built by Frederick II. whose son endowed it considerably. In May 1644, the Danes gained a considerable victory over the Swedes near Colding. This place is but small, since it does not contain above one hundred or one hundred and twenty houses: but what makes it chiefly considerable is its bridge over the river Aa, which is called Boherit, and gives name to the whole country about it. All the black cattle and horses, that come from Jutland, and go into Sleswick, must pass over this bridge, and pay each a crown for toll, whence arises a considerable part of the king of Denmark's revenue. Though this town lies commodious for trade on the Lesser Belt, over-against Middlefort in Funen, yet they have hardly any trade but in cattle. They have good fish, and the river Aa produces excellent eels.

Fredericks Ode stands on the banks of the Lesser Belt, ten miles from Colding to the north-east, and about twenty-seven from Ripen towards the east. It was built by king Frederick III. of Denmark, and is well seated on a point of land, with an easy descent to the sea-ward: it has been well fortified, being a pass over the Lesser Belt, or Middlefort-sound. The works are very high on the land-side; and on the other side of the point there are eight bastions: it has four gates, and before each a ravelin, but ruinous. Towards the sea the fortifications are lower, and of a greater extent; where there are bastions, platforms, and some batteries on the shore. Those fortifications inclose a great deal of ground, but the fifth part of it is not inhabited, for there are many corn fields and orchards within the walls. All the fortifications are now falling to decay.

This place was formerly a refuge for bankrupts, Jews, and such people; but king Frederick IV. has recalled those privileges. Here are two churches, one Danish, and another German, but they have no steeples. In 1658, this town was taken by Charles Gustavus's troops commanded by Wrangel; the garrison consisting of two thousand men, were all killed or taken. This opened a way to the king of Sweden to undertake his expedition over the ice from this place to Funen; where the passage over the Belt is above three English miles. The Swedes burnt and demolished this town in the year 1659.

Weille, or Weele, is six miles distant from Fredericks Ode to the north-west, and about twelve from Colding to the north. It stands on a little river, which falls into a great bay that communicates with the Lesser Belt, and makes a good harbour. The city is neat and well-built, but not large.

Warde is twenty-two miles to the north-west of Weille; Ringeping is forty-five miles from Ripen, and twenty-four from Warde to the north. Lemwick is fifty-six from Ripen, and eighteen from Ringeping to the north. Hottelbro stands about eleven miles from Lemwick to the south-east, and twelve from Ringeping to the north-east. It lies on a river which communicates with the German ocean by a lake into which the river falls: it is an inland town.

II. The diocese of Arhusen is the eastern part of Jutland, having, on the south, the dioceses of Wiburg and Aalborg; on the west and south, that of Ripen; and, on the east, the Categate and Lesser Belt. It extends about sixty miles along the coast of the Baltick, but is not much above thirty miles in breadth at the widest part. It contains thirty-one prefectorships or bailiwicks, three hundred and four parishes, five castles, or forts, and eight cities, or walled towns; namely, 1. Arhusen, the capital of the diocese: this city stands at the mouth of the river Gudi, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate. It is eighty-six miles to the northward of Sleswick, and forty-two north-east of Ripen. The situation is pleasant, being surrounded with forests full of game, pastures that are exceeding rich for the country, and fields which produce a considerable quantity of grain. The town itself is neat and agreeable, well furnished with provisions, and domestic necessities, from the neighbouring country; and with other commodities and luxuries from various places by means of shipping. The harbour is tolerable, and the cathedral church erected after a curious style of architecture, beautified and embellished with various monuments of noblemen, prelates, &c. The bishop's palace was once a magnificent structure, but is now fallen to decay. This city is now the see of a superintendant: it was made an episcopal see in the year 1014. 2. Scanderberg is a good fortress, six miles from Arhusen to the south-west. 3. The small town of Horsens is twelve miles from

Arhusen, south-west. 4. Randers is a very antient city on the river Gude, and a place of great trade; and abounds with excellent salmon and corn. 5. Ebelsot is about eighteen miles north-west from Arhusen. 6. Grinaa is seven miles distant from Ebelsot, to the north; and, 7. Mariager is sixteen miles from Arhusen, to the north. 8. The small town of Hobro is six miles above Mariager, to the westward: it is situated on the bay of the Categate.

III. Wiburg has the diocese of Aalborg on the north, from which it is partly separated from the gulf of Limford, having Arhusen on the east, and Ripen on the south and west. This diocese is not above twenty-four miles from south to north, and twenty-six from east to west, being almost of a round figure. Though this is an inland country, it is not without the convenience of navigation; for here are large lakes, that branch out into several parts of this land, and from whence, by means of the Limford into which they run, and which communicates with the Baltick sea, they receive vessels of great burthen. Among these lakes there is one named Othefunde, from the emperor, Otho, surnamed the Great, who, about the year 948, made an inroad this way, and penetrated even as far as this country, and, casting his javelin into the water, gave it the name it still retains. The best horses in Denmark are bred in that part of the diocese called Salling. In this territory are comprehended sixteen prefectorships or bailiwicks, two hundred and eighteen parishes, and three garrisons.

The most considerable towns are, 1. Wiburg, which stands in the middle of north Jutland, of which it is the capital city. This is a place of great resort, being the seat of a high court of judicature, which receives the appeals from inferior courts, but none can be made from it, save to the king. It has been the see of a bishop for above six hundred years. The bishop and chapter still subsist, though they are now of the Augsburg confession. It stands near a branch of the gulf of Limford, called Virksund, and was antiently called Cimmerburg, as being the chief city of the Cimbri. 2. Sokeve, which stands on the same gulf, twelve miles to the north-west of Wiburg, and is famous for its breed of horses. 3. Nybe, on the same gulf is eighteen miles from Wiburg, to the north-east, is also noted for good horses. The peninsula of Salling is surrounded on all sides by the same gulf, except towards the south, and is the most noted place in Denmark for fine horses, of which foreigners export great numbers.

IV. Aalborg is the most northern diocese of Jutland, and surrounded by the sea on all parts, except on the south, where it is divided from Wiburg and Ripen by the gulf called Limford, which runs from the Baltick sea, above fifty miles across the country, and is shut out of the German ocean by a narrow isthmus, or neck of land, made by the sand-hills on the west shore of Jutland, over-against a great shoal called Jutche-Rift. Aalborg is about seventy miles long, from the south-west to the uttermost point of Schager-Rift, in the north-east; but as it is of a triangular form, its breadth is not equal every where, it being but about forty miles in the broadest part. The north part of this diocese, which is cut off by the gulf (for the city of Aalborg lies on the south side of it) is called Wanfuzel, and by Latin authors Vandalia. The inhabitants are extremely hardy. The country is fruitful, and pretty well enriched by trade.

This diocese is divided into thirteen bailiwicks, which contain one hundred and seventy-seven parishes, one hundred castles, and the following cities and towns, viz. 1. Aalborg, so called from the great quantity of eels taken in the gulf of Limford, on the south shore of which it stands, about six miles from the Categate to the west. It is the see of a bishop, founded about the year 1060; but the bishops resided antiently at Burglaw. 2. Wenfuzel, or Burglaw, on the river Ryaa, which falls fourteen miles lower into the gulf of Limford, from which this city is as many miles distant, to the north: it was formerly a bishop's see. 3. Schagen, or Skau, is seated on the cape which it gives name to: it is the most northern land of Jutland, between the Norwegian sea and the Categate, or Schager-Rack. This town is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe than any other town in Jutland, because they touch here in their way to the Sound. 4. Nikioping is a considerable town: it is situated in the isle of Mors, made by the gulf of Limford. 5. Tysted is the most fruitful place of this district: it stands on the south-west part of the diocese, near thirty miles from Aalborg, to the west. It is noted for a kind of university, which was first a free-school only, founded by Christian III. 6. Seeby, fifteen miles distant from Schagen, to the south-west, is a small sea-port town on the eastern shore.

S E C T. II.

Treating of the Duchy of SLESWICK, or SOUTH JUTLAND; and the Duchy of HOLSTEIN; their Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

SLESWICK derives its name from the capital of the duchy, but is frequently termed in history South Jutland, particularly by antient writers. Some have erroneously annexed it to Holstein, and describe it as a part of Germany; but Sleswick is in reality a part of Denmark, and is divided from the duchy of Holstein, which bounds it on the south, and consequently from the German empire, by the Eider and the Lewen; on the east, it is bounded by the Baltick and the rivers Kalding and Skotburg, which separate it from north Jutland; while to west it is washed by the north sea. It is about eighty-five miles in length, and extends about eighty-six miles in the broadest part. A very few years ago a project was formed (but since laid aside) to join the Baltick with the German ocean, or north sea, by a cut carried across the peninsula, which is composed of the duchies of Holstein and Sleswick.

This duchy is divided into four circles, viz. Gottorp, Tonderon, Flexburg, and Haderlaben. The chief towns of it are as follow:

1. Sleswick, or Sleyzwick, the capital, is seated on a small arm of the sea, called the Sley, at the distance of about twenty-two miles from Kiel towards the north-west, thirty-eight from Gluckstadt to the north-east, and twenty-eight from Lunden to the east. Christianity was established here in the ninth century; and the great church was founded by Erick Barn, assisted by St. Anschar, bishop of Hamburg; and in the year 930, king Harold Blatand erected an episcopal see here. Afterwards the Selavonians invaded these parts in the year 1064, ruined the church, and restored the Pagan superstitions: but, soon after, these foreigners were again expelled, Christianity was restored, and the cathedral rebuilt. In the next century it was a place of very great trade, and much frequented by merchants, from Great Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c.

The soil, especially towards the south and east, is not very fruitful; but the town is sufficiently supplied with all necessaries of life from the neighbouring country; and the Sley affords abundance of fish. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable; but they import some from abroad, as well as wine, which is here pretty cheap. The buildings are very indifferent, though some of the most eminent citizens have pretty fine houses. The town has no fortifications, and is only surrounded with a wall; which parts it from the suburbs. The cathedral is the only church within the town. It is a large and beautiful pile, in which are to be seen the tombs of the antient dukes of Sleswick, and of several bishops. In the suburbs there is a church dedicated to St. Michael. Sleswick was formerly the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and is now that of a Protestant superintendant, who affects to be styled a bishop.

At a few miles distant from Sleswick, to the south, are yet to be seen, in many places, the ruins of the famous wall and trench, which was built in antient times by the Danish kings against the incursions of the Saxons. It is thought to have been begun by Gotherick, or Gothofred, king of Denmark, to keep out the armies of the emperor Charles the Great, about the year 808, and afterwards improved by queen Thyra, and other Danish monarchs, and made so strong, as to be esteemed impregnable by the counsellors of Henry, surnamed the Lion, duke of Saxony, who dissuaded that victorious prince from attempting to hazardous an undertaking. This rampart was called Danewark, and, like Adrian's wall in England, is reported to have reached from sea to sea, quite across this neck of land.

2. Gottorp, or Gottorff, was the antient seat and patrimony of the dukes of Holstein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or surname of Gottorp. It is about six miles distant from Sleswick to the south-west, and stands on the the Sley, which almost surrounds it, and carries vessels of small burthen to and from the Baltick. This place is, at the same time, a fortress, and a noble palace, being reckoned one of the finest seats in all these northern parts.

The castle stands to the west of the Sley, in the middle of a little lake, and is built in the form of an oblong square, fortified with four bastions of earth: the bottom is paved

with free-stone, the curtains are long, and the sides stand north and south. You approach the castle by a bridge, which joins it to the south shore. It is commanded by a mountain that stands north-east of it, from whence the Danes annoyed the castle in the year 1675, when the duke was treacherously surprised by the king of Denmark at Rentsburg. The duke, before his death had designed to rebuild the castle, but the front only is finished; and, if the whole had been completed, it had been one of the finest palaces in Europe. A rampart encompasses the first court, and the gate of the castle is of a fine blue stone, as hard as marble, with a lantern over it, that has twenty-seven lights.

On the north side of the castle there is a bridge of two hundred paces, over the lake; and at the end of the bridge there is a walk, between rows of trees, that lead to the garden, which is adorned with many fine water-works and cascades. On the left there is a basin, or fish-pond, two hundred paces square, with rows of trees on all sides, except on the north; there are also fine harbours on the sides of the pond, and in the middle an Hercules, of monstrous size, represented with his club, going to kill the Lernaean hydra, out of every part of which the water plays. In every corner of the pond there are statues, which form cascades. On the north there is a parterre, in the form of a crescent, divided into several compartments, with niches round, containing the busts of many kings and modern princes. There are also the representations of many fabulous animals, that throw water.

At the end of the walk there is a small room, in which is to be seen a globe, made by the famous Tycho Brahe, so contrived, that, by mechanism, it represents his system of the world. There is another admirable globe of copper, ten feet and a half in diameter, with a sphere, wherein the sun moves in the ecliptic, and all the heavenly bodies are carried round in exact order, by means of certain wheels, which are turned about by water, conveyed from the adjacent mountain.

Before this house there is a level ground, fifty paces broad, and three times as long, divided into three parts: those on the two sides have fine parterres, and that in the middle has a great basin in the centre, with water-works: the next terrace is higher, and the whole is inclosed with green pales, as high as each terrace, with busts all round. From the highest terrace there is the finest prospect in the world; viz. the castle in the front, in the middle of a lake, surrounded with a charming country, and a fine plain before it. On the left there is a great orangery, or greenhouse, where they keep, also, Indian trees, myrtles, pomegranates, and other trees, in boxes. The park is very noble, about four English miles in circumference, and full of fallow deer, and stags. Here is a toll-booth, or custom-house, where toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle, that pass from Jutland into Germany; this produces a considerable sum to the king of Denmark, for in some years there is toll paid for above fifty thousand head of cattle.

3. Eckrenford, or Ekelensford, stands on a little gulf of the Baltick, which makes a very commodious haven, and affords it a pretty considerable trade, it being one of the safest ports on that shore. It is about twenty-two miles distant from Gottorp to the east, and six from Kiel towards the north. It is said to have its name from the abundance of squirrels found in the neighbouring woods; though it is more probable it was called so from an old castle, out of the ruins of which it rose.

4. Christianpreis, is the capital of a bailiwick of that name, which borders on the duchy of Holstein: this town is situated on a gulf of the Baltick, at the entrance of the haven of Kiel, and is commanded by a castle that was built in 1637, by Christian IV. king of Denmark. It is about five miles distant from Kiel to the north, and four from Eckrenford to the east. It has about five hundred houses, and two gates, defended with strong works. The Eyder serves for a ditch, and makes it inaccessible; and where the river grows narrower, they have built a fine half-moon in the water, with port-holes for sixteen pieces of cannon: but some maps make the Eyder two miles distant from it; so that, according to them, it must stand on some rivulet that falls into the Eyder.

5. Frederickstadt, was thus called from its founder, Frederick duke of Holstein and Sleswick, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured, also, to settle a silk trade there, and, for that purpose, sent a famous embassy to Muscovy and Persia, which gave occasion to Adam Olearius

Olearius, secretary of it, to publish an account thereof, in an excellent book of travels.

This town stands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is twenty-four miles distant from Sleswick towards the west, and forty-two from Gluckstadt to the north. It is built after the Dutch way, and all sorts of religions are tolerated there. The town is square, surrounded with a large canal, planted with rows of trees. It is divided into two parts by another canal, also with trees on the sides. The Lutheran church is built with bricks, and very neat.

6. Tonningen is also situated on the river Eyder, ten miles below Frederickstadt, and about fourteen from the German ocean. It is not an antient town, but it has a pretty good trade, which increases daily, by means of its commodious harbour, formed by the Eyder. It was formerly well fortified, but the fortifications were demolished in 1714, by the Danes, who, after a long blockade, forced the town to surrender upon terms. This is the capital of the bailiwick of Eyderstadt, and much frequented by the Dutch, who buy black cattle at this place.

The other towns of less note are, 1. Flensburg, the capital of a district so called, and also of Angelen, or Engeland, the county of the Angles who invaded south Britain, which they named England; it is eight miles to the northward of Sleswick. 2. Husum, ten miles from Tonderon. 3. Lohn Cloister, about the same distance from the German ocean. 4. Hadersleben, a sea-port town, whose inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in fish. 5. Trinder, twelve miles to the westward of Hadersleben: it is a remarkably neat town. 6. Apenrade, twenty-five miles north of Sleswick: this is a pretty flourishing town, continually improving in beauty and extent, and has a tolerable citadel and good harbour: it has suffered much by fire and war. 7. Luxburg, or Glucksburg, four miles eastward of Flensburg: it is a small town, yet has a castle belonging to it.

There are no high mountains in Sleswick, but only some eminences. The highest hills are near the towns of Sleswick and Apenrade. The chief rivers in this duchy, most of which flow from east to west, are the Eyder already mentioned, as dividing Denmark from Germany; the Treen, which falls into the Eyder near Frederickstadt; and the Nips-Aa, which runs close by Ripen, with several smaller streams.

This country is plentifully supplied with corn, cattle, and fish; and some parts of the west-side of Sleswick, lying between the continent and the islands, which are overflowed by the tides, afford a great many oysters.

The inhabitants are a mixture of Danes or Juts, Lower Saxons, and Friesians; besides which there are Hollanders settled in Frederickstadt, and Flemings in Nordstrand: whence in some places the Friesian is the common language, in others the Danish, and in others the German.

Lutheranism is the prevailing religion in this duchy, except at Frederickstadt, where Papists and Jews, besides several sects, are tolerated; and on the island of Nordstrand, the Romans have a popish church and a chapel: the Calvinists are also indulged in the exercise of their religion in this duchy, by an edict issued in 1734; but they are not very numerous.

The nobility of Sleswick are rich, and have the same privileges with those of Holstein, but are not subject to the same governor; for they acknowledge the king only for their sovereign, and are under the jurisdiction of the royal provincial court at Gottorp.

The duchy of Holstein is bounded, on the west, by the German ocean; on the east by the Baltick; on the south-east, by Mecklenburg; on the south-west, by the river Elbe; and, on the south, by the territory of Hamburg, and by Lewenburg. It is divided into four principal parts, or provinces, viz. Holstein Proper, Wagria, Stormar, and Ditmarsh: is eighty miles in length, and sixty in the broadest part.

This country is remarkably fertile, and contains many rich marsh, pasture, and meadow lands. Dykes have been cut at a vast expence through the marsh lands, not only to drain off the waters which naturally accumulate there, but to drain off such as are occasioned by the inundations of the sea and rivers, which are frequent; these, however, give such a richness to the soil of the marshes, that cattle are bred in great numbers, and fattened in them, and vast quantities of excellent butter and cheese are made of the milk. In some parts of them they sow wheat, barley, peas, beans, rape-seed, &c. which thrive exceedingly. Sheep are bred in more sandy, heathy, and barren districts; and woods and orchards abound in other parts. The beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and pork, are all fat and

palatable; and the best sea and river fish are caught in great plenty. The Holstein horse are exceedingly beautiful, and, on that account, highly prized in Denmark and Germany. The country is in general plain and level, and watered by the rivers Eyder, Stor, and Trave, with many rivulets, dykes, &c.

The principal people usually farm out their cattle to a kind of bailiff, who runs all hazards, receives all profits, and allows the proprietors so much for the whole; thus the gentry receive a certain income, without having any trouble, and the bailiff is sufficiently rewarded for his pains, as he usually makes a fortune by the extra profits. An odd custom prevails here, which is, to drain the lakes and ponds, at certain times, and sell the carp, lampreys, pike, perch, &c. which are found in them; and then, for some years after, to sow them with oats, or use them for pasture; and after that, to lay them under water, and breed fish in them again.

The duchy contains about thirty cities and towns, great and small, and six hundred parishes. The houses and churches are very neat; for the people here, with respect to cleanliness, resemble the Hollanders. The clergy are annually chosen, and removeable at pleasure; the people are rigid Lutherans, so that they give but very little countenance to Calvinists, and are strongly prejudiced against the Roman Catholics. With regard to their description in other respects, they are in general well-made, finely featured, fair, strong, courageous; and so celebrated for their integrity, that the expression Holstein glauke, or honest Holsteiner, is proverbial throughout all Germany, Denmark, &c.

The principal cities, towns, &c. in Holstein, &c. are as follow; of which the most considerable is Lubeck, the chief of the Hanse-towns. This city is seated at the confluence of several rivers, the largest of which is the Trave, upon which it has a harbour. It stands fifteen miles to the south-west of the Baltick, and thirty-eight from Hamburg, in the fifty-fourth degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree forty-two minutes east longitude.

This is a large, rich, populous, free, and imperial city, about two miles in length, and upwards of a mile in breadth. The city stands on two sides of a long hill of moderate height, the eastern part extending down the declivity towards the river Wackenitz, as the western does towards the Trave. It is environed with walls, towers, false brays, wide moats, and strong ramparts, which being planted with trees, form a very delightful walk. The houses are all of stone, but old-fashioned, and the streets, which are pretty strait and lofty, are for the most part steep; but others at the bottom of the hill have a canal running through the middle, with rows of limes on the sides. The churches are magnificent, and amount to about twenty, besides the cathedral. It has several large market places, and handsome public buildings, particularly the senate-house, which is a superb structure, and has several towers. On the ground-floor is the hall of audience, which is well furnished, where the senate assembles; and in this structure are the archives of the Hanse-towns. Here is also a fine exchange.

The collegiate church of St. Mary is a noble pile, richly adorned with images and pictures; among the last is one called the dance of death. This structure is supported by tall pillars, each of one stone, and has a very lofty spire covered with gilt lead. The nunnery of St. John has a domina or abbess, a prioress, and twenty-two conventualists, and has its own church and chaplain. The convent of St. Mary Magdalen was, at the time of the reformation, converted into a poor-house, which has also its particular church and chaplain. In the suppressed convent of St. Catherine has been founded a grammar-school of seven classes, and in that building is a public library. The convent of St. Anne has been converted into an alms-house, and house of correction, both of which are handsome buildings under excellent regulations. Here is also an hospital dedicated to the Holy Ghost, an orphan-house, a small-pox hospital, and other charitable foundations. The corporation consists of four burgomasters and sixteen counsellors, who may be either men of letters, patricians, or tradesmen. The burghers consist of twelve companies, each of which has a vote in the public deliberations. An alliance still subsists between Lubeck, Hamburg and Bremen, and under the title of Hanse-towns they negotiate treaties of commerce with foreign powers.

The bishopric of Lubeck is a small territory, that has been enjoyed by the protestant princes ever since the year 1561, when Lutheranism was established in this bishopric, and it has

has devolved as an inheritance to a younger son of the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, styled duke of Holstein-Eutin, from his usual place of residence about five miles from the city; but he has since been raised to the throne of Sweden. This territory extends about sixty miles in compass, containing several small towns, and one hundred and three villages.

The river Trave brings ships into the heart of the city, which is near ten miles from the sea; the largest vessels, however, unload at Trarermund, a fort on the bay of Lubeck. The principal trade is to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Petersburg; and the magazines and warehouses are likewise well stocked in the productions of England, France, Spain, Holland, the East and West Indies, &c. The next staple commodity to corn is beer, which is in high estimation, not only as pleasant liquor, but as a medicine, when externally applied to bruises, wounds, &c. They export great quantities of this last article to foreign parts.

The little town of Trarermund, near the mouth of the river Trave, is dependent on Lubeck, from whence it is but nine miles to the north east, and thirty-two west of Wismar. One of the counts of Holstein sold it, in 1320, for four thousand marks, to the Lubeckers, who fortified it with four good bastions, erected a light house to guide the ships at night, and commonly keep here a garrison of three or four hundred men, commanded by a burgher of Lubeck, who receives his orders from the burgo-masters, and admits of no persons into the place without a pass-port. It was seized by the czar in 1617, in order to secure transports for his troops, but he was persuaded to quit it. There is a peninsula over-against it, about a quarter of a league in circumference, which belongs to the duchy of Mecklenburg.

The river Trave rises out of a great lake, in the jurisdiction of Segeberg; and, after a serpentine course from north to south, by Segeberg and Oldeslo, turns short to the east, waters Lubeck city, of which this town is the port, and then falls into the Baltick at this place.

The towns of less note are the following, viz. Oldeslo, on the river Trave, seven miles south of Segeberg, eighteen west of Lubeck, and thirty-one north-east of Hamburg. Travendal, on the same river, within a mile of Segeberg. Eutin, or Utin, is about sixteen miles from Lubeck. The town of Pleen is almost surrounded by lakes; it is the capital of what is deemed a principality of the same name. It hath a lofty palace, which commands a beautiful prospect, and is adorned with pleasant gardens and a park. The neighbouring lakes and woods furnish great quantities of fish and timber, upon the sale of which the inhabitants principally subsist. The town of Oldenburgh, now fallen to decay, is situated near the Baltick, twenty-seven miles north of Lubeck. Lemden is a market town on the confines of Sleswick, not far from the Eyder: it is celebrated for its beer. Meldorp, or Meldorf, is a large town of some trade standing on the Meele: here are three market places, and a public school for the study of the classics and rhetoric. Heyde is a large but poor town, ten miles to the north of Meldorp. Krempi is a small open town, on a little river of the same name.

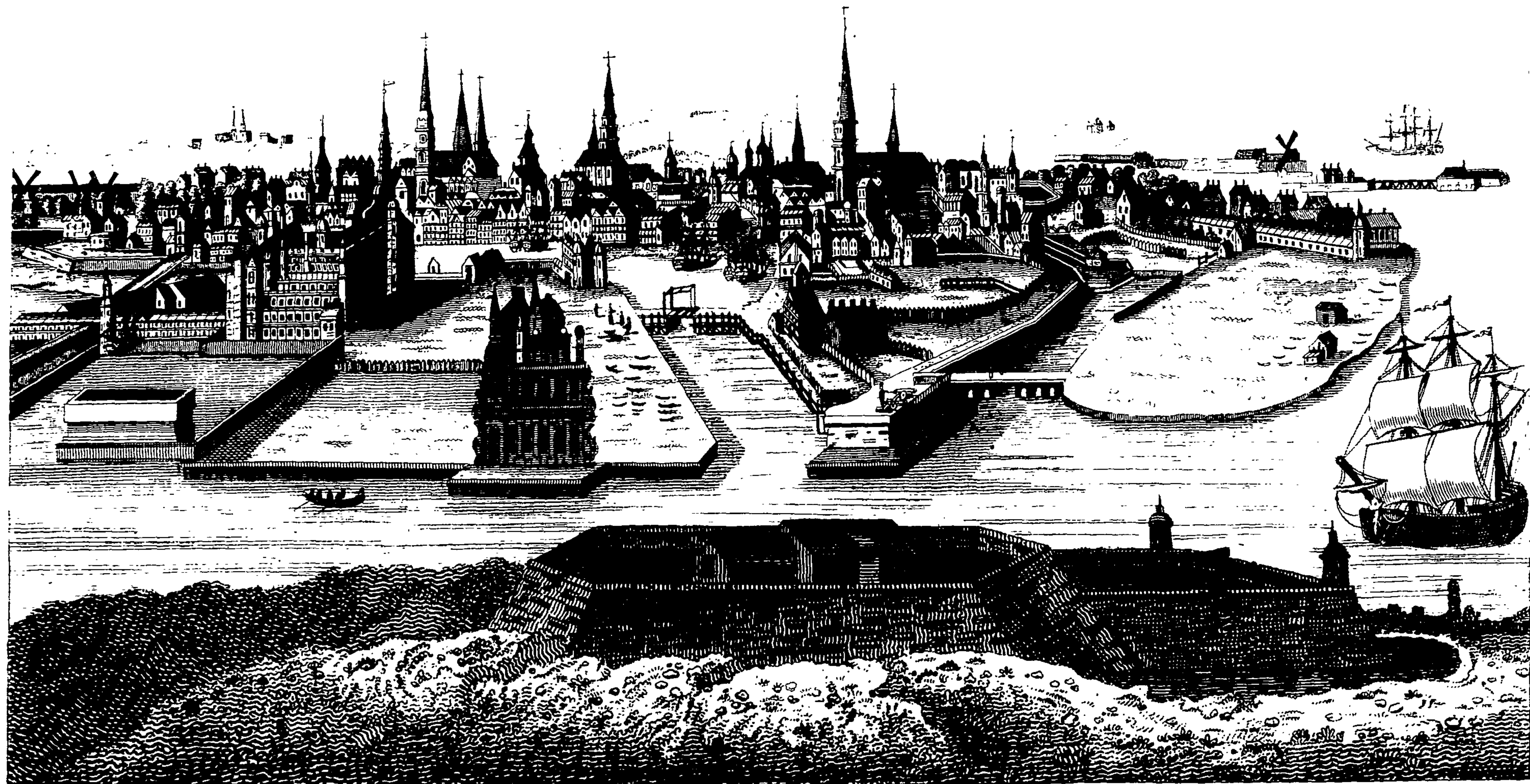
The town of Gluckstadt is situated on the north side of the Elbe, twenty-six miles south-west of Hamburg: it is neat, well-built, and deemed impregnable. The Danes have two thousand men in garrison here, and some men of war in the harbour, which is very safe and spacious. Here the Calvinists have a church, the Roman catholics a chapel, and the Jews a synagogue. This town was founded in 1620, when Christian IV. king of Denmark, ordered it to be called Gluckstadt, which implies Fortunate-Town. There being no springs about the town, the inhabitants use rain or river-water. Persons convicted of theft here are sentenced to draw, during life, the dust-carts belonging to the town, to which they are chained like galley-slaves. Bredenberg is a village on the Stor, defended by a castle. Primeburg is a market town on the Pinall, thirteen miles from Hamburg, and fourteen from Gluckstadt.

Altena is a considerable town seated in a most delightful country on a high shore of the Elbe, not above a cannon-shot to the west of Hamburg. The streets are regularly laid out, spacious and well paved. The town contains about three thousand houses, and upwards of thirty thousand inhabitants, with two Lutheran churches, and the same number for the German and Danish Calvinists, with a fifth for the French Calvinists, a sixth for the papists, and two Menonite churches, besides those belonging to other sects, who are allowed the free exercise of their religion: the Jews are also very numerous, and have a large

synagogue, but pay two thousand ducats a year as protection money. Here is a royal seminary, to which the town school is united, an orphan and poor-house, an anatomical theatre, and three docks for building of ships. Among its ornaments is the mall, which, being planted with four rows of trees, forms an agreeable walk.

This town has a variety of manufactures, and its trade is far from being inconsiderable, the Elbe bringing ships of burden to the merchants doors. The origin of its name is thus accounted for: deputies from Hamburg, in a remonstrance to the king of Denmark against building it too near their city, frequently made use of the words *Dat is all te nae*, or *That is too near*; the king taking particular notice of the three last monosyllables, said bantering to the deputies, he could not excuse himself from going on building it, but that to oblige them he would call it by the name they had given it. This town is famous for the calamities it suffered in 1712, when count Steinbock, the Swedish general, after defeating the king of Denmark and his army at Gadebusch, came and burnt it to the ground. As soon as he appeared before Altena, he sent in a message to advise the inhabitants to retire with what they could carry off, for that he was going to destroy their town. The magistrates came out in a body, and, falling at his feet, offered him fifty thousand rix dollars to save the town; but Steinbock insisted on two hundred thousand, which they were ready to comply with, and only desired time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the general would admit of no delay; so that the poor inhabitants were obliged to turn out; the mothers, with their infants at their breast; the sons, with their aged and infirm parents on their backs; others groaning under loads of household-stuff, and all lamenting their fate with the most pitiable cries. The Swedes stood at the barriers with flaming torches in their hands while they passed, and before they were all gone out, entered the town, and set fire to all the parts of it, which burnt two thousand houses, with several fine magazines, and the popish church; and some old men and women, besides infants, perished in the flames; but they spared the Lutheran and Calvinist churches, with about eighty houses that lay nearest to Hamburg. Never was a greater desolation known in any town. The Swedes, in justification of this barbarous proceeding, pretended that magazines of provisions and stores were preparing here for the Russians and Saxons, and that it was done by way of reprisal for the burning of Stade, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Russians in Bremen and Pomerania. But it ought to be remembered, that the Danes had besieged Stade in form, and that its destruction proceeded from their bombs; while Steinbock acted the part of a cruel incendiary against naked walls, and a poor defenceless people. What completed the ruin of Altena was the raging of the plague at the same time in Holstein; so that the Hamburgers were forced, for their own preservation, to shut the gates of the city against their distressed neighbours, many of whom perished through cold and want. The king of Denmark, however, relieved them as far as possible, and supplied them with materials for rebuilding their town, which, by the help of charities, has been done in a bountiful manner, and is at present a finer and more pleasant town than ever, it being the market for the sale of goods brought by the Danish East-India company from the Indies.

Kiel, the capital of all Holstein, is a town of great trade, at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltick; seventeen miles east of Rensburg, and twenty-four of Gottorp; thirty-six miles north-west of Lubeck, and forty-eight north of Hamburg. It stands between hills on an arm of the sea, where it forms a lake. Here is a good harbour, well frequented by ships from Germany, Sweden, &c. and is populous and wealthy. Both the town and harbour are defended by a castle on a neighbouring hill. On the right or east side of the castle, the sea washes its walls; and on the other side of the bay there is a delightful country, though woody: on the left, there is a small arm of the sea, and another delicate country adjoining to it. There is a garden facing this castle, which is the only place whereby Kiel has communication with the main land; only to the left of the castle there is a row of houses annexed to a village called Brunswick. This garden, which stands along the sea side, is above two hundred paces broad, and consists of a terrace walk level with the foundation of the castle, from whence there is a descent to parterres, full of all sorts of flowers, and adorned with a fountain, and a wilderness; and this lead to other parterres, from whence there is a small ascent to another terrace. It suffered much during the war between Sweden



View of the City of Copenhagen .Denmark .

and Denmark. An university was established here by the duke in 1665, which has had many learned professors. It is divided into the new and old towns, of which the former is the longest and pleasanter, the streets being planted with rows of trees. The old town, which is a sort of peninsula, is fortified by deep ditches: it is separated from the new one by a bridge, at the end whereof is a drawbridge, and a gate with a guard; and there are fine walks of trees on the harbour. There is a palace facing the town, on the north side, but it is in very bad repair, and quite unfurnished. Here are several fine buildings, particularly a fine church and an hospital, which before the Reformation was a Franciscan monastery.

This town is much enriched by its yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks, especially by the nobility and gentry of the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein. Vast sums of money are here negotiated, and payments made of sums contracted beforehand, as punctually as by an Amsterdam banker upon the exchange; inasmuch that the man who does not preserve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and subjected to punishment, besides the scandal.

S E C T. III.

Giving a Description of those Islands which compose the most important Part of the Kingdom of DENMARK.

BEFORE we proceed now to the description of the principal islands of Denmark, we shall give some account of the sea in which they lie, which is called the Baltick, and, by the Danes, Swedes, and Germans, the East-sea, because it is to the east of Denmark and Sweden. It is a large gulf, which has Germany and Poland on the south, Denmark and Sweden on the west, Lapland on the north, and Bothnia, Finland, Livonia, Courland, part of Poland, and of the kingdom of Prussia, on the east. It has a communication with the Categate, 1. By the Lesser Belt, a very narrow strait between Jutland and the island of Funen. 2. By the Greater Belt, between Funen and Zealand. 3. By the Sound, between Zealand and that province of Sweden called Schonen. To the east of Upland this sea branches out into two arms, one of which runs to the east, and is called the gulf of Finland; the other, which is the gulf of Bothnia, runs to the north. There are in this sea four other gulfs, which deserve to be taken notice of, viz. 1. The gulf of Livonia, at the mouth of the Dwina, where lies Riga. 2. Gulf of Courland, at the mouth of the Niemen, where is Menel. 3. The gulf of Dantzick, at the mouth of the Vistula. And, 4. The gulf of Lubeck, at the mouth of the Trave.

This sea is very dangerous in bad weather, all the coast, especially that of Sweden and Finland, being full of shelves and sands; but then there are here several safe harbours. This sea neither ebbs nor flows, and during three or four months in the year it is generally frozen over.

Zealand, in the Danish language called Seland, or Sialand, is seated at the entrance of the Baltick, and is encompassed by the Categate on the north; the strait called the Sound on the east; the Baltick sea on the south, and the strait called the Great Belt on the west. This is the largest island in the Baltick, it being about seventy miles in length, and sixty-five in its greatest breadth.

This island is described as presenting in the winter a most dreary and comfortless prospect, being then covered with snow; but during the short summer with which it is visited, it exhibits a most agreeable scene, being every where flat, and covered with corn or wood, for the whole country is cultivated with great industry.

This island has a tolerably fertile soil, and produces fine barley, of which malt is made, and a great quantity of it exported; it likewise yields plentiful crops of fine oats, but the rye produced here is not more than sufficient for home consumption. It has fertile meadows of a beautiful verdure, and some woods of oaks and beech, which abound with game; but in the country lying near Copenhagen, and some other parts, no woods are to be seen, and the inhabitants are obliged to use chiefly turf for their fuel. There are several lakes in this island, some of which are large, and both these and the rivers abound with fish. The most convenient harbour in the island is that of Copenhagen, and next to that the port of Kallundborg. Within the prefecture of Copenhagen is the city of that name, of which we shall now give a particular description.

Copenhagen, called also Keobenhaven, or Merchant's Haven, the capital of the kingdom of Denmark, and the

place where the court resides, is situated on the Baltick, in the forty-fifth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in twelve degrees fifty minutes east longitude, about thirty miles from the Sound, and has a beautiful and commodious harbour, the entrance to which is so narrow as to admit only one ship at a time; and every night this passage is secured with a strong boom; the mouth of it is commanded on one side by the citadel, and on the other by a block-house well furnished with artillery. In the harbour five hundred sail of ships may ride at ease, and round the whole enclosure a wooden gallery projects over the water. The city is in a low and marshy situation; but on the land side are several fine lakes, which furnish the inhabitants with plenty of fresh water. The adjacent country is very pleasant, and opposite the city lies the fertile island of Amac; which forms the harbour, and which we shall describe in its proper place.

The city at a distance makes a magnificent appearance, and from the West-gate to the Norway-gate in the citadel, extends four thousand one hundred and forty Zealand ells in length, and from the North-gate to the Amac-gate it is three thousand one hundred and twenty ells in breadth; so that its circuit must be twelve thousand six hundred ells, or six miles six hundred ells. The Gother-street, which runs in a strait line cross the whole city, dividing the Old from the New Town, is above four thousand two hundred feet in length. This metropolis contains four royal castles, ten parish and nine other churches, a considerable number of public and private palaces, about four thousand burghers houses, several of which are inhabited by ten or more families, eleven market and public squares, a hundred and eighty-six streets, and a hundred thousand inhabitants.

This city is divided into three principal parts, Old Copenhagen, New Copenhagen, and Christians-hafen. As the two last are more modern than the first, they are laid out in broad streets that run in a strait line. Most of the streets in Old Copenhagen since the last great fire, have been made of a sufficient breadth; but the old windings could not be entirely avoided. The houses in the principal streets and squares are almost entirely built with brick; but in the lanes most of the buildings are of timber. However, in general, they make a handsome appearance. This city is at the annual expence of ten or twelve thousand rix-dollars in keeping the streets clean, and in the night they are lighted by lanterns. In some parts of the city are deep canals, into which large ships may enter, and, to the great convenience of the merchants, they may lade and unlade close to the warehouses.

The city is also divided into twelve quarters, and the burghers into as many companies, which have all their particular colours.

In the old town are the following quarters, viz. first, the north quarter, which has the following places of note: the German church, dedicated to St. Peter, which was the principal parish church at the time of the reformation; it was afterwards converted into a foundery, but in 1585 was given to the Germans, and in 1618 was again made a parish church. The Walkendorf college, in St. Peter's-street, was formerly a Carmelite monastery; but the lord steward, Christopher Walkendorf, converted it into a college for sixteen students, each of whom has a yearly pension of thirty rix-dollars.

In the second or east quarter is the great Wartow hospital, which is an ancient foundation; but the edifice is new and spacious, and the endowment so considerable, that it contains at present above three hundred beds for the sick and poor, each of whom has his lodging gratis, and a weekly allowance of half a rix-dollar. The orphan-house, which takes up one entire side of the new market, and is a considerable ornament to that square. It has a dispensary, a printing-house, and a library belonging to the foundation. The council-house is a new structure, and being detached from the other buildings, separates the Old from the New Market. In the Old Market is a fine fountain, and in the New is a place walled in for the execution of malefactors. The other places in the west quarter worthy of notice are the west gate, and the royal palace, situated near the citadel of Christiansburg, which in 1743 and 1744 was new fronted in an elegant manner.

The clothiers quarter is the third, in which are the following places worthy of notice. The collegiate church of St. Mary, in which the bishop of Denmark and Norway are usually consecrated. The tower, which is esteemed the noblest in Copenhagen, stands on the highest spot in the whole city: it is three hundred and eighty feet in length, and has a fine ring of bells. The university, which includes the royal community, or the cloyster, in which

which a hundred poor students had formerly two meals a day; but at present they receive a pension instead of provisions, and in this edifice they hold their daily disputations. It likewise contains the consistory, the auditories or halls, the rector's house, and other buildings. To the university also belong four spacious colleges, well endowed, for the maintenance of the young students gratis. The Walkendorf college has been already mentioned. The other three are the royal college, founded by Christian IV. for one hundred and twenty students, though no more than an hundred now reside in it. The Collegium Elerfianum, founded by George Elers, for sixteen students, and the Borrichian college.

The most elegant and best endowed of all the private foundations is the Borrichian college, or Collegium Medicum. It was erected by the learned Olaus Borrichius, in 1682, for sixteen Danish and Norwegian students. Every student has apartments gratis for five years, with an annual pension of sixty rix-dollars. The library and cabinet of curiosities, which joined to this college, were burnt down in 1728, but have been restored in some measure since that time.

The north gate in this quarter, which was erected in 1671, is the most elegant structure of the kind belonging to the city.

The Freeman's quarter is the fourth division. Here are two churches, and the church of the Holy Ghost, or rather of the Holy Guests, the name being derived from a large hospital or guest-house that formerly stood near it, and was converted by Christian IV. into a house of correction. After the fire which happened in 1728, this church was rebuilt.

Snarron's quarter is the fifth division; in which there is nothing particularly remarkable.

Strand quarter is the sixth division; and contains the following places worthy of notice; namely, the magnificent royal palace of Christiansburg, which was enlarged and embellished by Christian III. Christian IV. and Frederick IV. but being very irregularly built, Christian IV. the present king's grandfather, caused the whole building, with the adjoining houses, which had been purchased of the burghers, to be pulled down, in 1731, and the following year laid the foundation of the present spacious and magnificent structure, which was finished in 1740. Though this edifice cost six millions of dollars, or about one million two hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling, yet the inscription over the ground portal declares, that the sovereign erected it from the ordinary revenues of the crown, without laying any additional burthens on his subjects. It is of a prodigious size. In one of the apartments are hung paintings of all the present reigning monarchs in Europe, which have been presented by the respective sovereigns. In this quarter is also an edifice, in the first story of which is the arsenal; and in the second the king's library, which is about two hundred feet long, and contains about sixty or seventy thousand volumes. The royal cabinet of curiosities, the picture gallery, and the cabinet of medals, are in the third story; and the cabinet of models in the fourth.

An ingenious traveller says, that this museum is a very large collection, and extends through all the vegetable, mineral, and metallic kingdoms, as well as the fine arts, and is more indebted to Frederick IV. than to any other sovereign. In this royal cabinet of curiosities are several large pieces of silver ore dug out of the mines of Norway in 1666, one of which weighs five hundred and sixty pounds, and is valued at five thousand crowns; and another piece is valued at above three thousand, both being supposed to contain at least three parts silver. What are most admired in them are the threads and branches of silver, which shoot out an inch or two beyond the stone, in form of small shrubs or bushes. Here are likewise several large pieces of amber; some weighing forty or fifty ounces. Upon opening ditches about Copenhagen, these were found sticking, like the gum on the plumb-trees in our gardens, to the sides of the old trees that were buried there.

Among the artificial curiosities is a piece of ivory, on which the history of our Saviour's passion is beautifully expressed in relieve. There is likewise a small man of war in ivory, with silver guns, which is much admired; as is also a watch made of ivory, and a skeleton made of the same substance two feet six inches high, and so nicely formed, that it is scarcely to be distinguished from a natural one. There are besides many other curiosities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other materials, kept for the sake of the elegance or minuteness of the workmanship; and it is said that there is a common cherry-stone, on the sur-

face of which are engraven two hundred and twenty heads; but their smallness makes them appear imperfect and confused. Among the greatest and most valuable curiosities, is kept the chair in which Tycho Brahe used to sit when he made his astronomical observations at Uraniburg. The wood which composes it is held in reverence, and preserved with the greatest care, as having belonged to so great a man; although, by the prevalence of faction and malevolence, the unhappy astronomer, when alive, was banished his country.

Here is a very large collection of paintings, which, though chiefly consisting of Flemish and German pieces, yet there are some few beautiful originals of Guido, Titian, Angelo, and even of Raphael: Charles I. of England, by Vandyke, and his son, Charles II. by Kneller, hold a distinguished place among them. Danish sculptors or painters scarce appear in this numerous assemblage. Some historical paintings, by Charles Dremander, a Dane, are however, there, and are not ill-executed; the principal of these is the portrait of the famous Margaret de Walde-mar, who, in 1397, united in her person the three kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, by the union of Calmar: she is represented, in this picture, as receiving the homage of this latter kingdom from the sovereign of it.

There is likewise, in this quarter, the magazine for provisions, the post-office, and the exchange, which is a grand structure in the Gothic style, four hundred and six feet in length, and sixty-six in breadth; the greatest part of which was built in 1624, by Christian IV. The lowest story is laid out in warehouses, which are very commodious for the merchants: for on both sides this structure are canals, where the ships may lie close to the warehouses, and goods be conveniently landed or shipped from them. In the second story, on the north side, is the place where the merchants usually meet. In the middle, and down the whole length on both sides, is a range of shops; in one wing of the south side is the royal magazine, where most of the cloths, silks, and stuffs made in the city are deposited, and from thence sold to the merchants and dealers.

In the Rosenburg quarter, which is the seventh, is a Calvinist church, a small neat edifice, where the ministers preach in French and High Dutch: here is also the Trinity church, generally called the Round church, from its round tower: the arched roof of this church, which is pretty high, is supported by two rows of very slender octangular pillars, which give it the appearance of a very slight building. In the great fire, in 1728, this edifice suffered less than the other churches, and was soon repaired. The greatest loss was the noble collection of books belonging to the university, kept in a large room over the arched roof of the church. A new library has, however, been since collected, in which are several valuable manuscripts relating to the northern history.

The tower of Trinity church is esteemed a master-piece of its kind, and was designed by Christian Langomontanus the astronomer. It is round, and an hundred and fifteen feet high, and fifty-four feet thick; flat on the top, and surrounded by an iron balustrade. The ascent is spiral, and so spacious and easy, that a coach and horses may go up and down with ease; which experiment was tried by Peter the Great, in 1716. This tower was designed for an observatory; but the curious astronomical and mathematical instruments invented by Tycho Brahe, Olaus Romer, and others, which were kept here, being all consumed by the great fire in 1728, Christian VI. to supply their place, afterwards furnished it with the most curious and valuable mathematical and astronomical instruments that could be procured.

The manufacturers quarter is the eighth.

The east quarter is the ninth, and in this are the following places of note; namely, 1. The church of St. Nicholas, which, next to St. Mary's, is the largest in the city, and the best ornamented both within and without; it has several curious monumental inscriptions, and the roof is covered with copper. 2. The Bremer Holms church, also called the Admiralty church; it being first allotted for the use of persons belonging to the navy; but afterwards a large congregation of burghers were added. 3. The General Commission-Office: this is a large structure, erected by Frederick IV. in the year 1704. Here the united colleges of the Admiralty and General Commission meet. Besides this structure, the following edifices belong to the naval department, viz. the Old or Bremer Holm, and the New Holm, where the naval stores are distributed: Christiansholm, where is the naval arsenal, which far exceeds that

that of Venice, and where the royal fleet usually lies at anchor.

There are two quarters in the new town: the first is St. Anne's east quarter, in which are Charlottenburg, a pretty large and regular structure, begun in 1672, and completed in the succeeding years. It derives its name from queen Charlotte Amelia, consort of Christian V. The situation of this castle or palace is very agreeable, its principal front facing the square called the King's New Market, which is embellished with an equestrian statue of Christian V. of lead gilt, placed on an elegant pedestal. The great guard-house, the foundery, and the Danish play-house, are also on the sides of this fine square.

In this quarter are also the naval hospital; the church belonging to the garrison; the Fredericstadt, which is now adorned with several elegant new palaces; Frederic's church, built in imitation of St. Peter's at Rome; the general hospital; the tolbooth or custom-house; and the grand academy of the royal cadets. This last structure was built by Frederic IV. for an opera-house; but in 1720, he assigned it for the land cadets; and, five or six years after, removed the company of sea cadets to this edifice. Each company has its separate apartments and exercising-rooms, and is under the inspection of its proper officer, who likewise lives in the academy. These young men are not only supplied with lodging, cloathing, fire and candles, and a monthly pension sufficient to find them in diet; but are also instructed at the king's expence in all the sciences, by able masters, appointed for that purpose. These two companies furnish the state with many able soldiers and seamen.

In the west quarter of St. Anne, is the royal palace called Rosenburg, a small edifice built by Christian IV. in 1604, in the semi-gothic taste; but is a grand structure, adorned with one large, and two small towers. It is surrounded with a ditch and a kind of fortification, and has its own commanding officer; but the guard is daily relieved from the garrison at Copenhagen. The adjoining gardens are very extensive, and embellished with a great number of ornaments. These, in summer, serve the inhabitants for a public walk, and the royal family sometimes reside a few days in this palace. The third story of the palace is said to be the most remarkable, from its containing a treasure of inestimable value. In the great hall, which is in this story, and takes up the whole extent of the building, are five pieces of painting by the Danish artist Krogk; twelve valuable pieces of tapestry, representing the achievements of Christian V. and three silver lions as large as the life, which at the king's inauguration are placed round the throne. In two cabinets adjoining to the hall are kept the old and new regalia, with other valuable jewels, and a whole service of gold. Another cabinet has a collection of curious and valuable drinking-glasses, and other glass vessels. The royal throne used at the inauguration stands in another apartment.

The village of Christianshafen consists only of one quarter. It is situated on the island of Almac, and had formerly its own magistrates; but is at present under the jurisdiction of those of Copenhagen. The most remarkable places in this suburb are St. Saviour's church, which is esteemed the most magnificent and elegant church at Copenhagen, and has a beautiful steeple, that has a spiral ascent on the outside, by which one may go up to the top. The German, or Frederick's church; the orphan-house for the education of two hundred poor boys; the East-India company's house; the fine dock-yard, where ships of war are refitted; and the gate of Christianshafen.

Between this place and Copenhagen is a high pillar erected in the midst of the water, on which is a statue of a naked woman, with a swan on her left side, that extends its long neck behind her back, and bringing its head over her right shoulder, puts its bill into her mouth. This pillar and statue are considered as a symbolical representation of the city of Copenhagen: they were, however, found near Calmar, in Sweden, during the war in 1611, and conveyed to Copenhagen from thence.

The Calvinists have a church in this city to themselves; those of the Romish religion frequent the chapels of foreign ministers of that profession, and the Jews have their synagogues. The magistracy of this city is appointed by the king, and consists of a president, three burgomasters, with vice-burgomasters, and common council men.

The plague has frequently visited this city, and swept away great numbers of the inhabitants. It has often been besieged, and in 1658, and 1659, held out against the Swedes almost two years; and in 1700 was bombarded by the combined fleets of Sweden, England, and Holland. On

the 20th of October, 1728, a fire broke out in the evening, in a mean house near the west gate, which spread with such fury, that in forty-eight hours the most elegant and greatest part of the city was reduced to ashes. Twenty-four streets and squares, one thousand, six hundred and fifty dwelling-houses, five churches, the university, with the four colleges belonging to it, the council-house, and several other public buildings, were burnt to the ground. The anniversary of this dreadful accident is observed in a religious manner on the twenty-third of October. The city has, however, been since rebuilt with greater elegance and beauty.

The suburb of Christianshafen being seated on the island of Almac, we shall therefore take some notice of that island, which is joined to the city, and consequently to Zealand, by two bridges. It is about nine miles in length, and three in breadth; entirely level, and has no woods, except a few thickets. The soil is uncommonly rich and fertile, and is therefore called the garden at Copenhagen. A part of it was given in 1516 to several families, who were invited thither from North Holland by Christian II. at the desire of Elizabeth his queen, who was a native of the Netherlands, to make butter and cheese for the court; and their descendants still retain the habit, language, and customs of their predecessors, together with their cleanliness and industry; for they will not mix with the Danes, but intermarry with each other. This island, through the industry of these laborious people, plentifully supplies the markets of Copenhagen with all sorts of roots and herbs, besides butter, milk, great quantities of corn, and some hay. The whole island is divided into two parishes, and is peopled by about eight hundred families, many of whom are Danes. But to return to the island of Zealand.

In the neighbourhood of Copenhagen is a magnificent royal palace, situated on a hill. It derives its name from Frederick IV. who was its founder, and has been since greatly enlarged by Christian VI. This edifice is very spacious; on every side it makes a most magnificent appearance, and has a fine prospect. The garden, which lies below the hill, is very extensive, and contains a great number of pleasant walks, several groves, a labyrinth, a theatre, many statues, fountains, and summer-houses; and, in particular, a very fine cascade just fronts the palace. From this edifice, is a descent into the garden by two flights of broad stone steps. The menagerie in the garden is stocked with lions, tigers, and other wild beasts. From this palace a pleasant avenue, planted with a double row of trees, extends above half way to Copenhagen.

Here is a royal hunting-seat, called Jagerburg: it was rebuilt by the late king; the officers of the chace reside in it. From hence a strait avenue leads to the noble park of Charlottenlund, so called from the king's pleasure-house, which stands in it. At about the distance of a mile from the park, lies that of Jagerburg, which affords plenty of game. Near the middle of it stands a new edifice, called the Hermitage, which is thirty ells in length, twenty in breadth, and elegantly adorned both within and without. In the lowest story is a curious machine, by means of which the victuals, &c. are conveyed to and from the king's table in the second story.

About five miles from the park is the castle of Hirschholm, a royal palace, which was antiently a place of considerable strength: but nothing now remains of the old castle, besides the name; for it is not only demolished, but the very situation of the place has been entirely altered by art. Christian VI. who took possession of it as prince royal, caused the foundation of a new edifice to be laid on the spot where the old castle stood; and his queen, after his accession to the throne, continued the building, the king having made her a present of it. In 1739 it was thought to be finished; though every year since new improvements and embellishments have been continually added. The outside has a very magnificent appearance, nor is it less elegant within. The great hall takes up the height of two stories, and has a noble fountain that throws up a column of water above twenty feet high, which falls down again into a copper basin. Directly opposite to the palace is a noble summer-house; and on one side of the garden is an eminence covered with trees, on which stands the Norway-House, which is so called from its being built in the Norwegian taste. The chapel is elegant and well adorned, and the garden very beautiful.

The famous castle of Fredericburg is about twenty miles from Copenhagen: this is esteemed the most beautiful palace of any belonging to the king, and is frequently called the Versailles of Denmark. Christian IV. caused the old building to be demolished, and the present magnificent

nificent structure to be built by the ablest and most celebrated architects in Europe. It partakes of the Greek and Gothic styles of architecture, and stands in the midst of a lake of fresh water, and consists of three principal parts, each surrounded with water, but joined together by bridges. The division, at which you arrive by passing over a bridge, resembles a horn work, the front of which is quite round, and faced with stone. On both sides are several buildings, which serve either as dwelling-houses for the officers of the castle, or stables for horses. From hence you pass over a stone bridge to a noble high tower, which stands over the gate that leads into the second court. On each side of this court, to the right and left, stands a magnificent building, in one of which are the governor's house, several apartments for the noblemen belonging to the court, and the king's kitchen; and on the other side, the chief magistrate of the prefecture of Serre resides. From this second court a fine stone bridge, built over a deep canal, leads to the grand portico of the chief entrance of the castle, which is built with free-stone, and adorned with sculpture and gilding. The principal building consists of a corps-de-logis, and two wings, four stories high, all covered with copper, and adorned with several towers, of which the church tower is the highest. Both the wings are joined to the front by a low building of one story. These consist of seven arches below, and as many above, built with free-stone, and adorned with statues that stand either in niches or detached from the wall, with many other ornaments; in short, which way soever you turn your eyes, curious sculpture, and a variety of other embellishments, present themselves to view; and there is a beautiful fountain near one of the wings.

There is a fine collection of paintings in the gallery that leads to the hall of audience, most of which were brought from Italy; and the hall is hung with the portraits of several of the Danish kings, and the present royal family, as large as the life. The exploits of some of these monarchs are also beautifully painted in different parts of the palace, and the greatest actions of Christian IV. are represented in rich tapestry.

In the church belonging to the castle, the eye is in a manner dazzled by the glittering of the gold, silver, and curious marble, with which it is enriched. The altar is of black marble, the front of the table is of silver and ebony, and the pulpit is of the same materials. From the gallery there is a view of the large pictures with which the pilasters between the windows are decorated. In the windows, and on the walls of this church, are the escutcheons of the knights of the Daneborg order. The gallery leads to a spacious place behind the altar, where the royal throne is erected; and on the walls, which are hung with crimson velvet, are seen the arms of all the knights of the order of the elephant. The grand organ in this apartment is curiously embellished with sculpture and gilding: formerly a fine organ of silver and ebony likewise stood here. In the tower is a fine ring of bells. In short, all the apartments of the castle are very magnificent, especially the knights ball-room, which is over the church, in the third story, and has also a noble organ. There is a fine garden behind the palace, and the neighbouring park interspersed with canals and fish ponds, and agreeably diversified with a mixture of grass-plats, and little hills and vallies, well stocked with fallow deer from England. In former reigns, the ceremony of the coronation was always performed here, but of late years it has been removed from hence to Copenhagen; and notwithstanding the magnificence of this palace, we are told that it is seldom visited by the present sovereign.

The town of Elsinore or Elsinour, is about eighteen miles from Copenhagen: it is situated on the Sound, directly opposite to Ellingsburg in Sweden, in fifty-six degrees, eight minutes, north latitude, and thirteen degrees, twenty-three minutes, east longitude. Next to Copenhagen, this is the richest and most elegant town in Zealand. It has two churches, in one of which, named St. Peter's, the ministers preach in the German language. Here is also a grammar-school, in which thirty-three poor scholars are educated and maintained gratis, a good hospital, and the king's custom-house, which is a fine edifice, newly built.

Elsinore has a considerable trade, and is famous both on account of its being the place by which the Swedes and Norwegians usually pass into Denmark, and for the toll paid here by every ship that sails through the Sound. On the north side of the city stands the celebrated and important fortress of Cronenburg, which is built, in the most durable manner, with large blocks of hewn stone, is ex-

cellently well fortified, and adorned with several turrets and a variety of sculpture.

About nine miles from Cronenburg, in latitude fifty-five degrees, thirty-six minutes, stands the royal palace of Friedensburg, in a delightful situation; which circumstance induced Frederic IV. to build this palace here; and as the edifice was completed in 1720, when the treaty of peace was concluded with Sweden, the king gave it this name, the word 'frieden' signifying peace. That prince, being extremely fond of this place, often resided here, and therefore, to render it as agreeable as possible, endeavoured to supply by art the deficiencies of nature. The inner court is a regular octagon, formed by seven wings, one story high, and the main building, which is opposite to the principal entrance. In the midst of the court is a fountain adorned with a marble statue of peace, made at Florence. The main building is in the form of a parallelogram, and covered with copper; and in the middle there is a spacious light and elegant square hall. The other apartments, in both stories, are nobly furnished. The garden is not very extensive, but well laid out, and embellished with statues, vases, and other ornaments. It is surrounded with a large wood, that affords plenty of game, and in which several vistas are cut. There is a delightful prospect from the palace; the eye commanding almost all the vistas at once, and at the end of them is an extensive lake, in which is a beautiful yacht. A fine orangery and an elegant church are near the palace. Here is a menagery, stocked with a variety of beautiful tame and wild fowl, in the wood adjoining to the garden.

Four Danish, or sixteen English miles from Copenhagen, is the ancient city of Roschild, or Roskild; it is situated about a mile from the extremity of a bay called Isfjord, and derives its name from Roe, the eleventh king of Denmark, who was its founder, and the word 'kilde,' which signifies a spring, there being several excellent springs on the spot where it stands. This city stands in fifty-five degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude, and in twelve degrees, fifteen minutes east longitude. It was a considerable city many centuries before Copenhagen was built, and once contained twenty-seven large churches and convents within its walls, and its streets extended to the seashore. Monuments of many kings of Denmark are in the great church here, this being their burying-place. Here is one of Harold VI. king of Denmark, England, and Norway, who was the founder of this church; here is also one of black marble, of the famous queen Margaret. The only vestige that it now retains of having been at any time the royal residence is, that from the most remote antiquity the kings of Denmark have been buried in this cathedral. In one of the chapels are two of the most magnificent monuments in Europe. They were made in Italy, by order of Christian IV. and are erected to the memory of his father and grandfather, Christian III. and Frederic II. the beginning of the last century. Four other monuments, of two late Danish kings, have not long since been placed here: they were executed by Windwelf, a celebrated Danish statuary now living.

A large whetstone is likewise shewn here, which they say was sent to queen Margaret by Albert, king of Sweden, in derision: intimating thereby, that women should sharpen their needles instead of aiming at war: but the wit, which is very poor, was well retorted by the queen; she returned him for answer, that she should apply it to the edges of her soldiers' swords; and she was as good as her word, for she overthrew him in a pitched battle, and made him prisoner; and after keeping him in confinement seven years, he was compelled to yield to very hard terms to obtain his release. A small royal palace was built in this town, in the year 1733, that has a communication with the church, by means of a covered passage. In 1699, a convent was founded here for twenty-one ladies of quality, and a prioress. Each of these ladies has an annual pension of eighty rix-dollars, besides lodging and board. Christian V. also endowed this Protestant convent with five hundred rix-dollars per annum.

There is a foundery for cannon about twenty miles from Roschild: it was begun by the late king Frederic V. and named Frederic's work, which the natives consider as the most considerable and astonishing in Europe; but, says Mr. Wraxall, it does not impress a foreigner with such ideas of its consequence.

Calinburg, or Kallundborg, in the prefecture of the same name, is one of the most flourishing towns in Zealand, and has the best harbour in the island, except Copenhagen. St. Mary's church, which has four lofty spires, makes a good appearance. The inhabitants carry on

Designed for Baldwin's New System of Geography.



*The Attachment of an Hottentot to the Manners of his Country,
shown by the conduct of one of them bred from his Infancy among Europeans.*

Published by the Author, March 21. 1791.

on a considerable trade, and a great quantity of malt is annually exported from hence. The passage to Barhuus in Jutland is usually performed in twelve hours; and a certain number of smacks sail twice a week to and from both towns.

The little noted town of Sora is situated in a pleasant country, in the prefecture of the same name. It is situated ten miles to the south of Roschild, where it is surrounded by three lakes of fresh water, and these are again almost encompassed with fine woods. This town is remarkable for the royal academy situated at the south end of it, to which belong a grand master, an inspector, professors in all the sciences that relate to civil or political employments, a French master, a riding-master, with proper masters for fencing, dancing, and drawing. There is also a printing press set up in this academy. The students have their apartments in a large and commodious stone building.

We shall now take a view of the small islands in the government of Zeeland.

Samso lies about thirty-eight miles to the north-west of Kalinburg, and nineteen from Abruse in Jutland, in the fifty-sixth degree north latitude. It is about fourteen miles long and five broad. It has several hills and eminences, and the soil is for the most part fertile, and particularly yields plenty of peas; whence most of the inhabitants are in good circumstances, and carry on a considerable trade with their small craft. It consists of five parishes, and is surrounded with several small islands and sandy shoals, dangerous to shipping.

Mona, Moen, or Moon, as it is usually called in our maps, lies near the coast of the south point of Zeeland, in the straits called the Wolfsund; it is situated in fifty-five degrees, twenty-one minutes, north latitude, and is nineteen miles in length from east to west, and about nine in breadth. The high chalky cliffs towards the Baltick may be seen at a great distance at sea, one of which has a great resemblance to a throne, and is therefore commonly called the king's chair. Stones of an uncommon figure are in great plenty on this coast. The soil of the whole island is fertile, and yields great plenty of peas. It consists of one prefecture, and contains seven rural parishes; and in the middle of the island is the little town of Stege.

Bornholm is situated in the Baltick, in the fifty-fifth degree, fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree, ten minutes east longitude, about seventy-six miles from the extreme point of Zeeland, and extends about thirty-three miles in length from the north-west to south-east, and is nineteen in breadth. The soil is fertile, and produces all kinds of grain, particularly oats. Here is also good pasturage, and a great quantity of butter is exported from hence; it has also quarries of marble and lime-stone, and abounds with pit-coal. The coast, from its dangerous rocks and shoals, is inaccessible almost on every side: and great guns are planted where there might be any danger of an enemy's landing. At the peace of Roschild, in 1658, it was ceded to the Swedes; but the inhabitants, being treated with great severity by their new masters, took up arms the same year, and, under the conduct of Jens Koefod, recovered their liberty; after which they delivered up the island to the king of Denmark, who, pleased with this proceeding, sent them a letter of thanks, and in a second letter promised to take them under his immediate protection; an engagement which the succeeding kings have confirmed from time to time. Bornholm has been ever since an hereditary country, belonging to the kings of Denmark. In 1678, five thousand Swedish troops were stranded on this island, in their passage from Pomerania to Sweden; when, notwithstanding their being provided with Danish passes, those that escaped the fury of the waves were made prisoners of war. The inhabitants defend the island with their own militia, without any expence to his Danish majesty, and have a governor, deputy-governor, prefect, and other officers. The island consists of one prefecture, which contains about a hundred villages, and sixteen rural churches.

The government of Funen includes Funen, Langeland, Falster, Laaland, and other small islands. It has two governors, under one of whom are Funen and Langeland, and under the other are Falster and Laaland.

Funen, called by the Danes Feyn, lies between the Great and Little Belt. This island is about fifty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It receives its name from its being a fine country, the whole island being fertile, and agreeably diversified with small verdant hills, some of which are covered with woods; whence most of the noble families of the kingdom reside there. Indeed, it is not

easy to find, in any other place of such small extent, so many noblemens seats as there are in this island. The soil yields such plentiful crops of grain, that the inhabitants may annually export above a hundred thousand barrels of rye, barley, oats, and peas, to Norway and Sweden, exclusive of their home consumption. It also produces a vast quantity of buck wheat, which is chiefly cultivated by the inhabitants. They employ a great deal of care in breeding bees, and make a considerable quantity of fine mead, which is exported to all parts of the kingdom. The apples that grow in this island are also much admired, and it likewise produces plenty of hops and esculent herbs; but the scarcity of wood obliges the inhabitants chiefly to use turf for fuel. There are here also great herds of black cattle, a good breed of horses, and abundance of hogs.

This island is divided into five prefectures, the principal places in which are the following; namely,

Nyborg, or Niburg, a strong town on the Great Belt, and though not very large, has a commodious situation. Here is a good port, and some trade. It was once very strong, but now has nothing remaining but the ruins of its old fortifications and castle. The ships that pass through the Great Belt are obliged to pay toll here, for which purpose a man of war is always stationed in the Belt. This city was first built in 1175. All that remains of the ancient royal palace, where Christian II. was born in 1481 (to the top of which an infant was carried up by a monkey, and brought down again without receiving any hurt) is only a large wing, with a flat tower, a little higher than the roof, and at present serves for a magazine and an arsenal.

Odense, is a city of great antiquity, and the capital of the general government; it is pretty large and populous, but the greatest part of the city is old and decayed; some of it is, however, new and well built. It is said to have been erected before the Christian æra, and to derive its name from the idol Odin, and not as some have imagined from the emperor Otho I. who was never there. It is situated in a fine plain, in the fifty-fifth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty minutes east longitude, on a river that yields a variety of fish, and about a mile below the town runs into the gulf of Stegestrand. The city is about a mile and a half long, and half as broad. It has four churches, among which the cathedral is the most remarkable. In the Grey Friars or Franciscan church, are interred king John, and Christiana his queen, with their son Francis, and king Christian II. Near this church is a handsome hospital, built in the year 1540. The king's palace is neither large, commodious, nor elegant; it being only erected as a lodging for Frederick IV. in his occasional progress through Funen: but there that excellent prince died in 1730. In this city is a college erected and liberally endowed by Christian IV. and also a large cathedral school. The provincial court is held every month in the great hall of this city. The bay lies a little above a mile from the town; the inhabitants carry on so considerable a trade, as to employ thirty-four large ships, besides above a hundred smaller vessels.

Langeland, which is situated in the fifty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifty-four minutes east longitude, is thirty-three miles in length, but scarce five in breadth. This island is very fertile, and abounds with wheat, barley, and rye, of which the natives export great quantities. It is under the same general governor at Funen: and contains only the royal prefecture of Traneklar, which includes the north and south districts, each consisting of seven churches or parishes.

Falster lies at the distance of two leagues from Zeeland, in fifty-five degrees north latitude, and is about twenty-eight miles in length; but its breadth towards the north end does not exceed fourteen, and towards the southern extremity is but about four miles. It is very fertile, and may be called the orchard of Denmark, from its yielding abundance of fruit: all sorts of game are likewise here in great plenty. This island is commonly the dowry of the queens of Denmark, and consists of one single prefecture, which contains two districts, in one of which are thirteen rural churches, and in the other fifteen.

The chief town in this island is Nicopping, in Latin Nicopia, or Neapolis Danica, situated on the straits called Guldborgsund, in the forty-ninth degree fifty-six minutes north latitude, and is a pretty large well-built town, one of the most ancient in the kingdom; but is not in so flourishing a condition as formerly, when the queen dowager, and other royal personages, constantly resided here. On the land side it is fortified by a wall and ditch. This town carries on a considerable trade.

Laland,

Laland, or Lolland, called by the Danes Laaland, is separated from Falster on the east, by the streights called Guldborgfund, or Grønesond, and on every other side is encompassed by the Great Belt and the Baltick. This island is nineteen miles distant from the island of Femern; is thirty-three miles in length, and about fourteen in breadth, and the most fertile spot in the Danish dominions. It produces plenty of grain, particularly very fine wheat, and excellent peas: it is likewise famous for a kind of red fruit called manna, which in its taste resembles sweet almonds, and grows on a slender stem; it also abounds with apples. It has some woods, but these are more frequent on the east than on the west-side.

The capital of the island is Naskow which was anciently well fortified, but is now only encompassed with a wall. It is of a middle size, and handsomely built. The inhabitants are wealthy, and trade in the produce of their country, it having a pretty good harbour. The Jews are allowed the public exercise of their religion, and have a synagogue here: the town has also a grammar-school, and an hospital.

SECT. IV.

Containing an Account of the Civil, Ecclesiastical, and Political State of DENMARK; also of the Language, Religion, Learning, Constitution, Government, and Laws of the DANES.

THIS kingdom is divided into seven capital governments, each being under the direction of a governor appointed by the king, who is called stifts-ampts-man; and this stifts-ampts-man, or governor, is usually a court-favourite. Each of these seven capital governments is again subdivided into three smaller jurisdictions, called ampts; and the governors of these ampts are called ampts-men. But stifts-ampts-men are equally unanimous in oppressing the poor, and obliging the court.

The Lutheran religion is established in Denmark; and the kingdom is considered as divided into six dioceses, viz. one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; but these are in fact no other than superintendencies, for they are without cathedrals, ecclesiastical courts, or temporalities. The principal business of these bishops, or superintendants, is to inspect the doctrines and morals of the inferior clergy. The superintendants are not distinguished from other ministers by their habit. The clerical dress consists of a black gown with short sleeves, a round cap with flat edges, and a large ruff about the neck. The revenue of the bishop or superintendant of Copenhagen, which is the richest benefice in the whole kingdom, amounts to no more than two thousand six dollars, or about five hundred and ten pounds sterling.

The clergy, in general, preach without notes, and some of them lead very exemplary lives. They are wholly dependant on the government, and are obliged to act with the utmost submission and servility to the court. But to make amends for being obliged to be obsequious to one class of people, they take care to shew their authority, and domineer over the lower class of people. Their churches are kept cleaner, and are more embellished with ornaments, than those in England, but the decorations are usually inelegant, and often absurd, particularly respecting their statues. They are extremely fond of sonorous music; hence their organists entertain the people for a considerable time, both before and after service.

In Denmark the ancient form of government was the same as that which the Goths and Vandals established in most, if not all parts of Europe whither they carried their conquests, and which in England is retained till this day, for the most part. Denmark therefore was, till within these eighty-five years, governed by a king, chosen by the people of all sorts: even the boors had their voices; which king Waldemar III. who reigned in 1334, acknowledged in that memorable answer of his to the pope's nuncio, who pretended to a great power over him: *Naturam habemus a Deo, regnum a subditis, divitias a parentibus, religionem a Romana ecclesia, quam si nobis invades, renunciamus per presentes*; i. e. "Our being we have from God; our kingdom from our subjects, our riches from our parents, and our religion from the church of Rome; and, if you grudge it us, we renounce it by these presents."

The estates of the realm, being convened, were to elect for their prince such a person as to them appeared handsome, valiant, just, merciful, affable, a maintainer of the laws, a lover of the people, prudent, and adorned with all other virtues fit for government, and requisite for the

great trust reposed in him; yet with a due regard to the family of the preceding king. If within that line they found a person thus qualified, or esteemed to be so, they thought it but a piece of just gratitude to prefer him before any other to this high dignity, and were pleased when they had reasons to chuse the eldest son of their former king rather than any of the younger, as well because they had regard to priority of birth, when all other virtues were equal, as because the greatness of his personal estate might put him above the reach of temptations to be covetous or dishonest, and enable him, in some degree, to support the dignity of the office.

If, after such a choice, they found themselves mistaken, and that they had advanced a cruel, vicious, tyrannical, covetous, or wasteful person, they frequently deposed him, oftentimes banished, sometimes destroyed him; and this either formally, by making him answer before the representative body of the people; or if, by ill practices, such as making of parties, levying of soldiers, contracting of alliances to support himself in opposition to the people's rights, he was grown too powerful to be legally contended with, they dispatched him, without more ceremony, the best way they could, and elected presently a better man in his stead; sometimes the next of kin to him; sometimes the valiant man that had exposed himself so far as to undertake the expedition, or the killing of the tyrant; at other times, a private person of good reputation, who possibly least dreamt of such an advancement, became the object of their choice.

The frequent meeting of the states was a fundamental part of the constitution. In those meetings all matters relating to good government were transacted, good laws were enacted, all affairs belonging to peace or war, alliances, disposal of great offices, contracts of marriages for royal families, &c. were debated. The imposing of taxes, or demanding of benevolences, was purely accidental, no constant tribute being ever paid, nor any money levied on the people, unless either to maintain a necessary war, with the advice and consent of the nation, or now and then by way of free gift, to help to raise a daughter's portion; the king's revenue, at that time, consisting only in the rents of his lands and demesnes, in his herd of cattle, forests, services of tenants in manuring and cultivating his grounds, &c. (customs upon merchandizes being an imposition of late crept into this part of the world). So that he lived, like one of our modern noblemen, upon the revenues of his own estate, and ate not through the sweat of his subjects brows, as the modern practice is.

The king's business was, to see a due and impartial administration of justice executed according to the laws; nay, often to sit and do it himself; to be watchful and vigilant for the welfare of his subjects; to command in person their armies in time of war; to encourage religion, arts, and learning: and it was his interest, as well as his duty, to keep fair with the nobility and gentry, and to be careful of the plenty and prosperity of his people.

Such was the ancient form of government in this kingdom; which continued, with little variation, excepting that the power of the nobles increased too much, till the year 1660, when at one instant the whole face of affairs was changed, the crown was made hereditary, and the king absolute.

This remarkable revolution was accomplished in the following manner: The whole nation, after the peace of Sweden, was in a most calamitous situation, for the treasury was so much exhausted, that when the army was to have been disbanded, there was no money to pay off the troops; hence the soldiery became insolent and licentious. At the same time the nobles were proud and tyrannical; the clergy discontented, from their want of importance, and the disrespect with which they were treated; and the commonalty grew quite desperate, by reason of the heavy taxes with which, on account of the late war, they had been oppressed.

The states, at this critical juncture, assembled to deliberate on the grievances of the nation, when it was proposed to the commons, that an equal tax should be laid upon all persons indiscriminately, and without distinction, in an exact proportion to their respective circumstances. The nobles, however, strenuously pleaded their privileges, which, they asserted, exempted them from paying any kind of taxes; and the commons as strenuously contended, that as the nobles ingrossed and enjoyed the greatest part of the lands, wealth, honours, &c. in the kingdom, it was more particularly incumbent on them to bear their share of the common burden, and contribute to the general defence.

The debates hereupon grew warm, and the altercation became violent: each party conceived an implacable animosity against the other, and the passions of all were equally overheated. In the height of this ferment, a nobleman called Otto Craeg stood up, and in a transport of rage told the commons, that they neither understood the privileges of the nobility, who were always exempted from such imposition, nor the condition of themselves, who were no other than their slaves. These degrading expressions irritating the commons beyond all degree of forbearance, Nanson, their speaker, started up, and, fired with indignation, swore that the nobility should repent their having considered the commons as vassals and slaves. The commons, or clergy and burghers, immediately broke up the assembly, and marched under the auspices of their leaders to the brewer's-hall; and in a few hours resolved to make the king a present of an absolute power, and to render the crown hereditary in his family, so as that it might descend even to females, in default of male heirs; which resolution they accordingly put in execution the next day: and though the nobility hesitated at first on the matter, yet they were also obliged to comply; and in three days time the alteration was completed: so that the kings have been ever since despotic and arbitrary; not the least shadow of liberty remaining to the subject.

Since this event took place, all meetings of the estates in parliament are entirely abolished; nay, the very name of estates and liberty is quite forgotten, as if there had never been any such thing; the very first and principal article in the Danish law being, "That the king has the privilege reserved to himself to explain the law; nay, to alter and change it as he shall think proper." Any considerate person may easily guess the consequences of this, which are, frequent and arbitrary taxes, and commonly very excessive ones; even in times of peace, little regard being had to the occasions of them; so that the value of estates, in most parts of the kingdom, is fallen three-fourths: and it is worse near the capital city, under the eye and hand of the government, than in the remote provinces; hence ensues poverty in the gentry, which necessarily causes extremity of misery in the peasants, partiality in the distribution of justice, when favourites are concerned; with many other mischiefs, being the constant effects of arbitrary rule, in this, and in all other countries wherein it has prevailed. Thus the people, with a rash and desperate hand, from motives of revenge, fomented by an artful ministry and ambitious clergy, resigned their liberty and independence, and invested their sovereign with a despotic power over their lives and properties.

The kings of Denmark from this memorable period have united in their persons, all the rights of the sovereign power; but they are obliged to delegate some part of the executive power to their confidential subjects, as they are not able to exercise the whole themselves.

Their language, like that of Norway, is a corruption of the Teutonic, or rather, both the former are corrupted dialects of the latter; the pronunciation, is, however, harsh, and the tone drawling and disagreeable. Besides, many Dutch, German, and French words, have been introduced; and the better sort of people are fond of speaking the latter fluently and accurately.

Learning is at a very low ebb in Denmark, not having yet triumphed over barbarism; so that taste and polite literature are scarcely known. This country, it is true, hath produced some few persons admirably eminent in the mathematical sciences, and the art of medicine, such as Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, Bartholines, &c. but the merit of these is to be considered as the effulgence of a comet, challenging the greater admiration, because so seldom seen. The small progress of the Danes in the sciences, however, appears rather to result from a defective constitution, and an oppressive government, than from any want of natural abilities in the people. A learned traveller, who lately visited Denmark, observes, that the clergy and lawyers, as they are entirely dependant upon the court, and the great lords of the kingdom, are the most subservient creatures imaginable: they fill up their respective places in the scale of slavery; but they fill them as so many cyphers, or rather as so many machines that are moved at the will of others. The situation of several very sensible and learned men among the clergy and lawyers of this kingdom is truly pitiable; for certainly a man who knows his duty well, and is prevented from doing it, has a very disagreeable task to go through; and it is very difficult to define the characters of those men who have no will of their own.

For Denmark and Norway, the supreme court of judica-

ture is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, the king being president. The tribunal of Holstein is held at Gluckstadt; and that for the duchy of Sleswick in the town of that name. The nod of the sovereign is decisive in the council; the members whereof, as they are removeable at his pleasure, being obliged implicitly to obey his will.

The proceedings in the courts are so summary, that a suit may be carried through all of them, and finally decided, in thirteen months; and every man, if he chuses it, may plead his own cause.

Here are three other courts, subordinate to the supreme court of judicature, at which the king presides; these are, the land-stag, or provincial court; the herredsfogds, or district court; and the byfogds, or town court. Appeals lie from each of these courts to the other, according to superiority; and the final appeal is to the supreme court, when the king, as the ultimate legislator, gives the ultimate decision.

The king appoints the judges, which are removeable at pleasure; they are punishable for misdemeanors, that is, if the monarch thinks proper to deem their actions such; and thus being royally condemned, are obliged to make reparation to the injured party. Their salaries are inconsiderable, being paid from the king's treasury, from fines, and from gratuities where sentence is passed. There is likewise an exchequer court in Copenhagen, to try causes relative to the revenue; and a commercial, to try all differences respecting trade. The chancery executes all manner of business respecting treaties, alliances, &c. and the admiralty court manages all marine disputes.

In Denmark, the police is very strict: hence highway robberies, burglaries, coining, clipping, &c. are crimes scarcely ever heard of; and to speak against the government so strongly prohibited, that none dare wag their tongues licentiously in political matters. Murder and manslaughter are, however, common; and the punishment of the criminal is beheading, which is performed, with great dexterity, by the public executioner, who, though universally despised, is usually rich, as he is not only well paid to deprive a culprit of his life, but is the general contractor to empty all the jakes, and remove from houses, stables, streets, &c. all kinds of filth, and, in particular, dead cats, dogs, &c. which no other Dane will touch upon any account whatever. There is a master of the police in Copenhagen, who superintends the council and civil affairs of the city; and such diligence and circumspection is used, that a person may walk through the whole city at midnight, in perfect safety. To prevent fires, the chimney-sweepers are bound to keep a register of all the chimnies they sweep, that the person may be punished for his avarice, or neglect, on conviction, who is the occasion of an accident from a foul vent, &c.

In this kingdom the apothecaries are under excellent regulations; only two are allowed in Copenhagen, and one in all other towns of importance. They are licensed by the college of physicians, and confirmed by the king; and are obliged to keep an exact register of the drugs they sell, to whom they are sold, and by whom prescribed.

The Danish laws are contained in so perspicuous and short a code, as to consist only of one quarto volume, which is written in the language of the country, and divided into six books, the contents of which are as follow: 1. On the procedure of the courts of justice. 2. Ecclesiastical law. 3. Office and honorary law. 4. Maritime law. 5. Property law. 6. Criminal law.

SECT. V.

Treating of the Trade, Revenue, Naval and Land Forces, &c. of DENMARK; also of the Persons, Habits, Characters, Customs, Manners, &c. of the DANES.

THIS kingdom, being extremely well situated for commerce, might be easily rendered rich and flourishing; but, by reason of the many exactions and duties it is subject to, is at present one of the most indigent and distressed states of Europe: for where agriculture and internal trade are cramped, foreign commerce can never flourish. When a farmer, in Denmark or Holstein, happens to be an industrious man, and is situated upon a poor farm, which he is, by his great diligence and industry, endeavouring to cultivate and improve; as soon as he has performed the laborious task, and expects to reap the profits of his toil, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hands, removes him from that to another of his

poor farms ; and expects that he should perform the same laborious task there, without other emolument than what he shall think proper to give him.

In this country, the commercial commodities consist chiefly of fish, timber, tallow, pitch, tar, planks, skins, live cattle, horses, and grain from some provinces. Their money is reckoned in rix-dollars and stivers, the first being four shillings and six-pence each ; the latter rather more than an English penny.

An East India company was established in Denmark in the year 1612, and a settlement made at Tranquebar, on the Coromandel coast ; but this East India trade, though of some advantage to individuals, is detrimental to the nation in general ; as the Danes pay in specie for all their tea, porcelain, bale-goods, &c. not having natural productions, or manufactured goods proper for these markets ; and were it not for the small quantities of these goods which they send into Germany, Prussia, Courland, &c. and the teas which their merchants smuggle upon the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, the company would soon prove extremely prejudicial to the whole country.

It must, however, be confessed, that Christian VI. did the utmost in his power to benefit his country. He abolished the monopolies of wine, brandy, salt, and tobacco. He terminated the disputes which had long subsisted between the crown of Denmark and the city of Hamburg ; instituted a council of trade ; invited artists, workmen, and manufacturers of foreign countries to settle in Denmark ; established a bank ; maintained a respectable fleet and army, &c. And his son Frederick V. very laudably trod in his footsteps ; but these prospects have been obscured by oppression, imprudence, faction, and party, in the present reign.

The king's revenue arises from crown lands, taxes and duties, and these are extremely heavy. The landholders pay dearly to the sovereign, who is absolute, for the privilege of holding their lands, for the implements and liberty of cultivating them, and for every necessary article of life. All persons, not servants (the clergy excepted) pay eight shillings annually, as a capitation tax for themselves, the same for their wives, and the same for all their children who exceed twelve years of age. The clergy only are exempted, in consideration of the trouble they take in making out lists every year of all taxable persons within their respective parishes. Here is likewise a tax of four shillings upon every stable where horses are kept.

There are some few exemptions from the general mode of taxation ; but the person so exempted pays a particular tax, levied in a peculiar manner. Those domestics, who serve the nobility, are thus taxed, annually : stewards and housekeepers, four shillings ; footmen, two shillings ; and maid-servants, one shilling. Labourers pay yearly four shillings, and their wives two, if not hired servants. But one of the most considerable articles in the revenue of Denmark, is the money raised by a duty or toll paid by all ships which pass through the Sound into the Baltick. The Sound is a narrow strait between Schonen and the island of Zealand. On the Danish side stands the town of Elsinour and the castle of Cronenburg : and on the Swedish side the town of Helsingburg. Between those passes all the ships that trade to the Baltick. But though the Danes by the treaty of peace, have expressly retained their title to it, and receive toll from all ships that pass, except those of the Swedes, yet they do not esteem the security of that title so firm as they could wish ; for as they are not masters of the land on both sides, they may have the right, but not the power, to assert it upon occasion ; and seem only to enjoy it according to their good behaviour ; their stronger neighbours, the Swedes, being able to make use of the first opportunity given them to their prejudice.

As this toll is very considerable, and has occasioned many disputes, we thought it might not be amiss to set down in this place an accurate account of the original and nature of it. It was at first laid by the consent of the traders into the Baltick, who were willing to allow a small matter for each ship that passed, towards the maintaining of lights on certain places of that coast, for the better direction of sailors in dark nights : hereupon this passage of the Sound became the most practised ; that other of the Great Belt being in a little time quite neglected, as well because of the great conveniency of those lights to the shipping that passed in and out of the East sea, as because of an agreement made, that no ship should pass the other way, to the end that all might pay their shares ; it being unreasonable that such ships should have the advantage of those lights in dark or stormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards the maintaining of

those fires, by passing another way in good weather. Besides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been so insignificant, considering the small sum which each ship was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it ; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge, solely for the use and benefit of their own trading ships ; because they were masters of so few, as made it not worth their while ; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other hanse-towns, being the greatest traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe ; by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches.

There being no fixed rule, or treaty, whereby to be governed with regard to the different bulk of the ships belonging to so many different nations, the Danes began in process of time to grow arbitrary, and exacted smaller or greater sums, according to the strength or weakness of those they had to deal with, or according to their friendship or discontent with those princes or states to whom the several ships belonged. Therefore the emperor Charles V. to ascertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was signed at Spire on the Rhine, and was in behalf of his subjects of the Netherlands, who had a great traffic in the Baltick, and agreed, that as a toll-custom in the Sound every ship of two hundred tons and under, should pay two rose-nobles at its entrance into, or return from the Baltick ; and every ship above two hundred tons, three rose-nobles. A rose-noble is worth about eighteen shillings sterling. This agreement remained in force till such time as the United Provinces shook off the Spanish yoke ; and then the Danes, taking an advantage of those wars, raised their toll to an extravagant height, the troublesome times not affording the Dutch leisure to mind the redressing of such a mischief. However, the toll is at present greatly reduced, and much more reasonable ; and if the principal maritime powers thought fit to dispute the matter, they certainly would have no occasion to pay it at all. About the year 1640, this toll produced two hundred and forty thousand rix-dollars per annum ; but since 1645, it has not yielded above one hundred and ninety thousand ; some years not above eighty thousand ; in 1691, it did not extend to full seventy thousand ; and to much less since that time.

Of all the Danish taxes, that upon marriage is the most impolitic, and more particularly as the country greatly wants population. All people of rank, who have public employments, pay a sum equivalent to ten pounds sterling for the privilege of being married ; people of rank, who have no public employment, pay at the rate of four pounds sterling ; clergymen, citizens, free farmers, and the stewards of the nobility, pay sixteen shillings ; mechanics eight shillings : and servants and labourers, four shillings ; seamen, soldiers and husbandmen, are exempted from this tax, and for a very good reason, which is, that they are totally unable to pay it.

Another very heavy tax is, an exemption subsidy, which, though exorbitant and oppressive, is cheerfully paid by all housekeepers who can raise the money, because by the payment they are exempted from having soldiers quartered on them. This tax is rated by the civil magistrates, according to the size, situation, rent, &c. of the house. Besides the taxes to government, two more are paid by all citizens and burghers, for the support of their respective cities and towns, viz. a capitation-tax, and a ground-rent tax ; and independent of these, here is a heavy stamp-duty, and taxes upon patents, commissions, a titular tax paid by the nominal nobility, &c.

From these various taxes, duties, imposts, and subsidies, the whole revenue of Denmark at present amounts to the annual income of one million, two hundred thousand pounds, and this is the utmost that government can possibly draw from the people, without draining the kingdom of the little money that remains in circulation ; for the Danes are, perhaps, the most heavily taxed of any people in Europe, though they are the least capable of paying such oppressive levies.

Most of the regular troops in Denmark are foreigners, and more particularly, Germans. The cavalry and dragoons are well-mounted, and consist of eleven regiments ; and each regiment of four squadrons, including the body guards. These regiments are thus quartered, viz. three in Zealand, one in Funen, three in Jutland, and one in Holstein. The infantry is composed of sixteen regiments, of which two do duty as the king's guards. When the regiments are complete, each consists of two battalions, and each battalion consists of six companies of

one hundred each. The artillery consists of three regiments, one of which is stationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and a third in Holstein. The corps of engineers is divided into three parts, each of which comprises twenty officers of various ranks.

Since the late reduction of the Danish forces, their numbers are as follow: ten thousand cavalry and dragoons, and thirty thousand infantry and artillery; so that the regular troops in Denmark amount to forty thousand. And with respect to the militia, every person who cultivates or possesses three hundred and sixty acres of land, is obliged to furnish one man, and pay half the expence of a man towards a corps-de-reserve, to be embodied and called out only upon extraordinary occasions.

The navy belonging to the Danes consists of thirty ships of the line, and about sixteen frigates; but these are generally kept in such bad repair, that it would be found difficult, upon an emergency, to fit out twenty ships capable of putting to sea. To man this fleet, there are two orders of seamen, namely, thirty thousand who are constantly in-rolled and retained, in times of peace, by a trifling annual stipend, and being exempted from the payment of certain taxes. A second class is composed of four divisions, each having a chief and ten companies of one hundred and eighteen men each. These are commanded by a captain, who has two subaltern officers under him; and in this class are a certain number of gunners, who have a kind of naval academy, and instruct the seamen. This second class contains four thousand seven hundred and twenty men, who are always ready for immediate service, and constantly kept in full pay. They are occasionally recruited from the in-rolled seamen, and wear a blue uniform faced with different colours, according to the respective squadrons and divisions to which they belong.

Their men of war carry the same complement of men in proportion to their guns, as the French ships of war do; but they are much inferior, in point of construction, both to English and French, and are far from being equal to the Swedish ships of war.

Frederick IV. instituted a marine academy for the instruction of young cadets. Appointments were made for fifty cadets to be trained up to a thorough knowledge of naval affairs, and perfectly taught navigation, gunnery, drawing, fencing, history, geography, geometry, and several other branches of the mathematics, &c. In order to join practice to theory, they were annually to make a voyage in a frigate, and successively to perform the services of common seamen, pilots, and officers. But this noble institution is now totally neglected, and the money appointed to support it is sunk into venal pockets; so that the Danes, in case of a rupture with any naval power, would have a great difficulty to find proper persons to command their ships of war, except from the few officers among them, bred in the English and French services.

There are computed to be about two million, one hundred thousand subjects in the various parts of the Danish dominions, the inhabitants of which may be distinguished into five classes, viz. 1. The nobility, who have privileged fiefs in the kingdom. 2. The titular nobility. 3. Clergy, lawyers, and students. 4. Merchants and citizens. 5. Seamen, farmers, and labourers.

There are very few families of the first class, or antient nobility, now existing; so that most of the families, who are now in possession of the privileged fiefs, have been ennobled since the revolution in 1660, and most of them very lately. They value themselves very much upon their titles and privileges, and are uncommonly fond of pageantry, pomp, and show. They are proud of French topgeries, and imitate all the blemishes, but none of the good qualities of that nation. The ladies in general are finished coquettes, and in the practice of that art seem to vie with the most skilful females of London and Paris.

A great number of the second class, or titular nobility, are foreigners, and in particular Germans, who generally come hither very poor, but usually acquire wealth by servilely attending the court, and falling into all the schemes of the favourite or minister.

The third class, being dependant on, are obliged to be subservient to the court, and submissive to the minister, &c.

The fourth class are conceited and haughty, but at the same time timid, and servile to superiors.

The fifth class, who are the seamen, would be much more alert in their business, if they were better used; and would act with greater spirit and courage, if they were not familiarized to fear, and trained from their births to the most abject slavery. The farmers, as we hinted above, are perfect vassals, and by not being permitted to have any

will of their own, become timid, careless, and indolent. If any of these happen to get a little money, they become perfect fops, and usually destroy themselves by intoxication. Indeed this vice of drinking to excess is almost general among the Danes; though many, sorely against their wills, are obliged to keep sober through poverty.

The labouring people are some of the most oppressed and miserable wretches in Europe, and may thank Providence for a kind of insensibility and stupidity which prevents them from feeling all the horrors of that tyranny to which they are obliged to submit. It has been, however, observed, that these people seldom quarrel with each other, though they are very fond of drinking and of smoking tobacco, which are of general use here, and which may contribute much to their health, and to the little activity they possess in the cold and wet atmosphere they live in.

The Danes were formerly celebrated for their warlike genius; but this being now totally lost, they are become timid, suspicious, deceitful, dull, and in general stupid. The king, on the sale of an estate, has a right to one third of the purchase-money; and their lands in general are so burdened with impositions, the gentlemen are at little or no pains to improve their estates, and they look upon trade as beneath their dignity. They therefore rack their tenants with the utmost oppression, in order to procure the immediate means of gratifying their vanity, gluttony, and extravagance. Those courtiers, who derive money from their employments, instead of purchasing land in Denmark, remit their cash to the banks of Hamburg and Amsterdam. The merchants and burghers tread in the steps of their superiors; they spend all their gain in luxury and pleasure with an impatient avidity, as if they were afraid of incurring the suspicion of affluence; and of being stripped by taxation. The peasant or boor follows the same example: no sooner has he earned a rix-dollar, than he makes haste to expend it in brandy, lest it should fall into the hands of his oppressive landlord. This lower class of people, says an accurate writer, are as absolute slaves as the negroes in the West Indies; and subsist upon much harder fare. The value of estates is not computed by the number or quality of the acres of land, but by the stock of boors; who are reckoned a parcel of the freehold, in the same manner as the timber upon it.

The Danes are well-shaped and strong built, exceeding fair, both men and women, but have Dutch shapes and a very bad mien; their hair usually yellow, as is observed of most northern nations, while the hair of the southern people is generally black. The ladies that are not exposed to the weather, have excellent complexions, and make a very agreeable figure in a sitting posture; but they cease to charm when they put themselves in motion, and indeed it is difficult to know whether they move at all for some time, if they are at a little distance from us. They are as corpulent and ill-shaped as the Dutch, and want a little of the activity of the French. Both sexes take great care to dress and curl their fair locks, and imitate the southern nations in their habits, except the lower class of people, and the Laplanders, who wrap themselves in furs or wool in winter from head to foot. Their heavy bodies seem to affect their minds, to both which their excess in eating and drinking may contribute; and they are seldom much improved by learning. On the other hand, they appear to be good-humoured, hospitable people, and their courage is seldom called in question.

At funerals, as well as marriages, they feast and make merry. The nobility pique themselves upon having pompous burials and monuments for their dead. Most gentlemen keep very plentiful tables, and drink chiefly Rhenish wine or brandy. Upon an invitation, the guests have each a glass of brandy offered, or rather forced upon them, as soon as they come in; and at dinner-time, whenever the master of the house drinks a glass of wine, every one at the table does the like. The ladies, as well as gentlemen take off their glasses at every health drank at dinner; but then their glasses are smaller, and they retire before the men begin their indelicate toasts.

The principal diversions of these people are, being drawn in sledges upon the ice, during winter, and running at the goose on Shrove-Tuesday. The king annually partakes of the pastime of stag-hunting, during which diversion he lays aside the trappings of royalty, and mingles, as an equal, with his nobles and attendants; even the common people are indulged with very extraordinary freedoms at this time. When the hunting is over, about six in the evening the hunting assizes are held in the great court before the palace. There the stag is cut up with great ceremony by the huntsmen, who are clothed in red, and have hunting

hunting horns about their necks, while the hounds attend with the most clamorous impatience. Proclamation is also made, that if any person has, that day, transgressed the laws of hunting, he should be immediately accused. Some individual is always selected for this purpose, tried, and found guilty. Then he is led by two gentlemen, towards the stag, where he first kneels down between the horns; he is afterwards obliged to raise up his posteriors, on which the king himself, with a large wand, inflicts a certain number of stripes, to the infinite diversion of the queen, ladies, and other spectators; during which the hounds open, and the huntsmen blow their horns, as if in concert, to proclaim the king's justice. The criminal having undergone this ludicrous chastisement, rises up, and makes a profound obeisance, and then the hounds are permitted to regale upon the stag.

Another royal diversion is swan-hunting, which the court enjoys in a small island near Copenhagen, where those birds breed in great numbers. Before the young ones are sufficiently fledged to take their flight, the king, queen, courtiers, &c. set out for this island in a number of pinnaces, inclose the haunt of the swans, and with fowling-pieces destroy them by thousands: the feathers and down belong to the king, but the flesh is never eaten.

Their usual way of travelling by land is either in waggon, or on horseback, and the sledges are more used than either in winter, for their diversion, as well as on journeys. If a gentleman obtains a warrant from court for horses or carriages, the farmers of every province are obliged to furnish him with them, as they are for the retinue of the court when the king removes. They have inns upon the roads; but there, as in Holland, they make little cabins, like those in ships, all round the room, where all sorts of people sleep together. He must be a man of great distinction who is favoured with a room to himself; but their beds are very good, and their linen clean as in Holland. Indeed, the cities and towns in general afford but bad accommodations to strangers, the taverns being poorly supplied with refreshments; so that a traveller, to be in any-wise contented in this country, must have a traveller's appetite, and take a good stock of patience along with him.

The modern Danes are not those visionary and ferocious people their ancestors were, who were ashamed of dying in their beds, and whose greatest felicity consisted in drinking hydromel out of the skulls of their enemies. While the peasants are employed without doors, at their labour, the women are occupied at home in spinning yarn for linen, which is here made to a great degree of fineness and goodness. Many of the people are subject to apoplexies and epilepsies, which are owing to hard drinking, and low living. It has been justly remarked, respecting the generality of the people, that there is no part of Europe where extravagancies of all kinds are carried to such lengths, as in Denmark, in proportion to the little they have to spend; and perhaps appears in no instances more conspicuous than their weddings and burials.

The Danes are excessively fond of titles and distinctions, which are partly annexed to military, civil, and ecclesiastical employments, and partly nominal. The various employments give a kind of dignity, during life, to those who hold them; and the nature of the employ fixes the rank between those who are in the same train, but it cannot decide the precedence between an officer, a magistrate, and an ecclesiastic; and therefore this is regulated by an ordinance for the etiquette of rank. Those who have a certain rank by their employments, often obtain, after some time, titles superior to their respective functions. These titles are sometimes likewise imaginary; as thus: when a person has the title of counsellor of state, of justice, or of finances, it is not to be concluded from thence, that he has necessarily any part of the government of the state of justice, or of the public revenue, except the word "actual" is added to his character.

The king of Denmark has some hundred lords of the bed-chamber, who pay about ten pounds sterling yearly for wearing a golden key, which gives them a considerable rank; and yet there are not ten paid for their attendance at court.

To the court belong two ancient orders of knighthood, viz. that of the Elephant, and that of Daneburg. The badge of the former, which is the most honourable, is an elephant surmounted with a castle set with diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured ribbon, like the George in England. This order was instituted by Christian I. at his son's wedding. It is conferred only on persons of the highest quality; and the number of companions amount to thirty, besides the sovereign. The order of Dane-

burg, though less honourable, is much more antient; so that the origin of it is lost in fable: it is bestowed, as an honorary reward, upon the nobles of inferior rank, its insignia being a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left shoulder, from which is suspended a small diamond cross, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, "pietate & justitia," by piety and justice. Here is likewise a modern order of knighthood, called the order of St. Matilda, and instituted in honour of the late unfortunate queen; but which, being now little regarded, is consequently not aspired to or solicited.

SECT. VI.

Comprising the Antient and Modern History of DENMARK, and the Kingdoms annexed to it.

THE inhabitants of these kingdoms appear to have been colonists of the ancient Scythians, who overrun all the northern and western parts of Europe. They were first known from their celebrated expedition into Italy during the consulship of Cecilius Metellus and Papirius Corbo. At this time the liberties of Rome were threatened by intestine divisions, till private feuds gave way to public consternation, on the Romans being informed that three thousand northern barbarians had made an irruption into the Roman territories. These ravagers had designed to quit the inclement and unfertile regions in which they were born, for a serener climate, and more fruitful country.

They first conquered all the little nations in their own vicinity, then subdued the Gauls, and at length prepared to attack Italy itself. Upon this emergency, the senate dispatched Papirius Corbo to defend the passage of the Alps. This general, after entering into a negotiation with the northern invaders, shamefully broke the truce, without any manner of provocation, and unexpectedly attacked them in the night; but was so warmly received, that he met with a repulse. This affair was greatly prejudicial to the Romans, since it gave spirits to the Cimbri, as these northern people were called, and engaged many to join them, who would otherwise have been neutral.

Having now entirely overrun Gaul, the Cimbri designed to pass the Pyrenees, and establish themselves in Spain; but being repulsed by the people of that country, they sent an embassy to Rome, to offer their military service to the Romans, on a proviso that they should have a sufficient territory assigned them, from which they might procure their subsistence. These proposals were rejected; which so greatly enraged the Cimbri, that they attacked the consul Silanus, and cut his whole army in pieces. This misfortune was followed by several others; for the Germans, entering into an alliance with the Cimbri, the Romans were defeated in three other battles, in one of which the Roman general, Scaurus, with his two sons, were taken prisoners, and above eighty thousand Romans slain.

While affairs were in this calamitous situation, the celebrated Marius was appointed to the command of the Roman army, when acting with more prudence and skill than any of his predecessors, he at length defeated the enemy in one of the most bloody battles that ever was fought, when above a hundred thousand of the northern barbarians were slain. Similar successes followed this, till the whole of these ferocious people were either destroyed, taken captives, or obliged to retreat.

After this, we find little mention of these people, till a great person, named Woden, or Oden, is said to have made himself sovereign of all the northern nations; and his abilities being equal to his courage, he not only subdued all around him as a general, and ruled the people as a king, but formed a new religion for them as priest, and prescribed a code of laws as a legislator. Hengist and Horsa, who first brought over the Saxons into England, derived their lineage from him; and most of the royal and noble families of the northern parts of Europe, to this very day, pretend to trace their descent from him. Yet historians do not take upon them to ascertain from whence this celebrated person came, or when he died; they indeed say, that he lived about sixty years before the birth of Christ; and that he was the first to whom the title of king of Denmark was given.

The descendants of Woden reigned after him in the several northern nations, and at length revenged the misfortunes and miscarriages of their ancestors upon the Romans, by gradually weakening their empire, and at length overturned it.

The

The Danish chronicles mention eighteen kings, from Woden to Regner, surnamed Logbrog, who began his reign Anno Domini 750, but they furnish us with little more than their names, or at least with only such fables as, in this enlightened age, are too ridiculous and absurd for commemoration or recital.

This kingdom was greatly weakened, in the fifth century, by a prodigious number of people quitting it at that time, to join the armies which effected the conquest of the western empire; but it recovered about the eighth century, when we find the Danes rise into importance, as a maritime people, and harrafs the coast of Courland, Livonia, Pomerania, Ireland, Scotland, France, and England. They even attacked the emperor Charlemagne, burnt his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, over-run Lower Saxony, Friseland, Holland, and Flanders; conquered the greatest part of the kingdom of France, obliging her kings to pay an immense tribute, ravaged Spain and Italy, and committed many other depredations.

In the year 832, the Danes landed in Kent, and defeating king Egbert, remained there two years, plundering and ravaging the country; but in a second battle king Egbert was victorious, and drove them out of the island.

The Danes landed in England again in the reign of king Ethelwolf; and in the reign of Ethelred his son, they landed in Suffolk, and murdered Edmund, king of the East Angles in his capital, now called St. Edmundsbury, that king being afterwards canonized for a martyr, because he was killed in the defence of his Christian subjects, by the heathenish Danes.

Guthram, or Godrum, king of Denmark, who began his reign about the year 872, invaded England, and fixed colonies in several parts of it; Alfred, king of England, fought several battles with him, and at length coming to a treaty, Guthram agreed to leave the kingdom, and before he embarked embraced Christianity; what other articles there were in this treaty history does not inform us; but as soon as the Danes were gone, Alfred put his subjects on building a fleet of ships to defend their coasts, which they soon had occasion for, the Danes preparing for another invasion. Alfred died in the year 900, having fought upwards of fifty battles with the Danes, by sea and land.

The greatest part of the people were, at the above-mentioned time, bred up to the sea from their childhood, and had no ideas of the dangers to which that element exposed them. When a prince had attained the age of eighteen or twenty years, he generally requested his father to have some ships equipped, by which he might attempt some great exploit, with his followers: this the father regarded as a mark of his rising courage, and of a great mind. A fleet was armed immediately, of which the admiral, and all his officers and men, made reciprocal promises never to return, except loaded with spoils and laurels. If they had received any injury from a neighbouring nation, that nation was chosen for the first victim. Those whom they vanquished were generally put to death; sometimes indeed they contented themselves with making slaves of them; and often, likewise, by a singular kind of generosity, or rather by a desire of signalizing themselves, if they found themselves superior to the enemy which presented itself against them, they ordered off a part of their fleet, that they might fight the enemy with equal force, despising the gaining an advantage with superior numbers, and regarding it as an infamous practice to surprise an enemy in the night. Their vessels were always well provided with arms; and their men were all taught to swim, so that as they generally fought near the shore, they were often in a situation of securing themselves, although their vessels were destroyed.

The manner in which their lands were divided in Denmark and in Norway, shews us, that the chief end of their government was, to have a great maritime force; every division, whether it was greater or less, took its name from the number of vessels that it could equip, and in some places their names are still in use. In the beginning of their maritime expeditions, their fleets were not very considerable; but when their princes had enriched themselves by plundering their neighbours, they came to have two or three hundred sail of ships of war, each ship carrying from one hundred to one hundred and twenty men.

To a nation that is wholly addicted to plunder and rapine, civil laws and a police are of very little use. This was strictly the case with Denmark, when their king, called Gorman, came to the throne in the year 840. The few useful regulations which had been left them by Woden and others were now laid aside; and the kingdom was divided

among two or three princes, who governed with a very limited power; and that confusion which we find in the history of Denmark to this time was occasioned by one historian writing the history of one prince, who reigned in this country; and another, the history of another prince who reigned at the same time. But Gorman, by uniting to his crown, all the provinces of Denmark, of which his ancestors had been dispossessed, and being forced by the emperor to receive the Christian religion into his dominions, gave this government again some form; and from hence we may date the origin of the civil government which for many years afterwards existed in this state.

It is related, that in the year 999 there was a general massacre of the Danes settled in England, which is still commemorated annually at Hocktide. Be this as it may, certain it is that Swein and his son Canute, or Knute, conquered this kingdom about the year 1014, though several battles were fought with the Saxon kings Ethelred and his son Edmund Ironside, before the Danes could establish themselves here. Upon the death of Edmund Ironside, anno 1017, all the great men acknowledged Canute their king, swore allegiance to him, and renounced the two sons of Edmund, Edward and Edmund, who were banished into Sweden, from whence they went into Hungary, where they resided many years. King Canute, in the mean time, obliged the English to raise him one hundred thousand pounds every year, with which he paid his forces, and maintained his court; and in the year 1019, he conquered the kingdom of Norway. In the fifteenth year of his reign, anno 1031, he visited Rome, where he gave great part of the spoils he had taken to that see; and, returning to England, died at Shaftsbury on the 12th of November 1036, having divided his dominions between his three sons: to Harold he gave England; to Swein, Norway; and to Canute, Denmark. Harold died in 1040, leaving neither wife nor issue, and was succeeded by his brother Hardicanute, the third son of Canute, who died in 1042. This was the last of the Danish race in England.

In 1182, Canute VI. subdued Vandalia (the present Pomerania and Mecklenburg) and took upon him the style of king of the Vandals, which country continued subject to the Danes twenty-seven years. Livonia was also conquered by this prince.

In 1202, Waldemar II. extended his dominions in Germany, and lived in great reputation in the beginning of his reign; but count Swerin committing the care of his territories, as well as his wife, during his absence in the Holy Land, to his majesty's protection, he debauched the count's wife; of which her husband being informed at his arrival, took the king prisoner by a stratagem, and made him pay forty-five thousand marks to obtain his liberty, after having confined him three years. While the king was prisoner, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Lubeck, and Dantzick revolted, the Teutonic knights took Livonia from him, and Holstein and Stormaria were subdued by Adolph count of Scawenburg.

Olaus dying without issue, anno 1387, queen Margaret his mother was elected queen of Denmark and Norway, who having associated her nephew Eric with her in the government, subdued the kingdom of Sweden; and it was enacted by the states, that these three kingdoms should be united for the future under one prince; and upon the death of queen Margaret, Eric became sole sovereign of the whole; but being deposed on pretence of mal-administration, he retired into Pomerania, where he lived a private life the remainder of his days.

In the year 1439 was elected Christian earl of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended. He subdued the kingdom of Sweden, which had revolted, and the emperor Frederick gave him the county of Holstein. This prince married his daughter Margaret to James III. king of Scotland, and gave him with her the island of Orkney and Shetland, the last being a very valuable acquisition, as it affords the best herrings in these seas. The Dutch begin that fishery here every year at Midsummer, without asking leave of the British court, though they paid in the reign of Charles I. thirty thousand pounds annually for this privilege. Christian was succeeded by his son John, who divided the duchy of Holstein with his brother Frederick.

Christian III. established the Lutheran religion in Denmark: he was succeeded by his son Frederick II. in 1538. Christian IV. his son being engaged in a war with Sweden, in order to obtain peace, was compelled to yield up the province of Halland to the Swedes.

In the year 1660, Frederick III. his son, was besieged in his capital city of Copenhagen by Charles Gustavus king of Sweden, who drew his artillery over the ice into the province of Zeeland; and if the Dutch had not come to Frederick's assistance, Gustavus would probably have made a conquest of that island: but though Frederick was unfortunate in his wars with foreigners, he raised his prerogative to that height, that he perfectly subdued his subjects, and from a limited elective monarchy, made himself an absolute prince, and established the succession of the crown in his family. In the same year, the peasants and lower class of people complained, they were not able to discharge the debts the public had contracted during the war, and therefore, entreated the nobility and gentry, that as the profits of the lands were theirs, they would condescend to bear part of the burthen, the nobility and gentry, before this time, paying no taxes for their lands. To which they answered the commons with great insolence, told them that they were born in a state of servitude, their slaves and vassals, and did not understand their duty: to which the commons made no reply, but retired from the assembly with the clergy, who adhered to them, and going immediately to court, acquainted his majesty, that they were come to a resolution to make him an absolute monarch, and his throne hereditary. His majesty being before apprized of the design, had introduced an army into the town, in order to compel the upper house to concur in this resolution of the commons, if they refused their consent. The lords being acquainted with the substance of the address which the commons had made to the throne, and sensible that they were in no condition to dispute with the court and the commons, supported by the army, offered to make the crown hereditary, and entreated the constitution in other respects might not be altered; but they were given to understand, that the king would be satisfied with nothing less than their unanimous concurrence with the resolution taken by the clergy and commons, which they found themselves obliged to submit to, and took the oaths to his majesty, acknowledging him the supreme and only legislator. Thus was the constitution changed from a republic, with a nominal king at the head of it, into an absolute hereditary monarchy; not one of the nobility daring to oppose it; only Gerdorf, a popular member, said, he was confident, his majesty designed the happiness of his people, and not to govern them according to Turkish politics, wished his successors might follow his example, and make use of this unlimited power only for the good of their subjects.

In 1670, Christian V. succeeded his father Frederick III. and being joint sovereign of Holstein and Sleswick with the duke of Holstein, in order to exclude the duke from his share in those provinces, or at least to oblige him to acknowledge his dependence on the crown of Denmark, treacherously invited him to an entertainment, where he made him prisoner, and sent detachments of his army, to take possession of such towns as belonged to the duke; with which the duke reproaching him, the king answered, he was always in the interest of Sweden, and never to be trusted; and unless he would renounce his right to certain places, he would take possession of the whole country. He particularly demanded of him an order to the commander of Tonningen, the strongest fortress belonging to the duke, to surrender it to his majesty's troops; which the duke consented to, apprehending the king would have taken his life if he had refused, and Tonningen was thereupon delivered up to the Danes: several other articles he was obliged to sign, that were very prejudicial to him: but the duke making his escape to Hamburg, protested against the validity of all the acts he had been obliged to sign.

Hereupon the king gave orders for demolishing Tonningen, and sequestered the duchy of Sleswick, causing both magistrates and people to swear allegiance to him, declaring them absolved from their allegiance to the duke. He also caused all the duke's revenues to be brought into his own treasury, continued garrisons in his towns, and even in his palace of Gottorp; and not knowing how soon he might be compelled, by the duke's allies, to deliver up what he had so unjustly seized, he exacted contributions from the poor subjects, to the value of many millions, whereby he filled his own treasury, and disabled the duke's subjects from giving him any assistance.

The duke remained still at Hamburg, from whence he sent his son to the German princes, to implore their assistance. He applied also to the court of England (which was guarantee of the peace of the north), but to very little purpose, till Charles XI. king of Sweden, undertook his

cause in the year 1689, and was about to transport his army into Germany, for the restoration of the duke. But the German princes, together with the English and Dutch, who were now entered into a confederacy against France, being apprehensive that this might disturb the peace of the empire, and divert the troops from the French war, at length obliged the king of Denmark to restore to the duke of Holstein his dominions, after he had been in possession of them thirteen years; but no satisfaction was made him for the devastation of his territories.

Things remained in tolerable peace from the conclusion of the differences by the mediation of the confederates in 1689, to the year 1696; but Christian Albert, the late duke of Holstein, dying about that time, and the king of Denmark having sent a deputation to his son and successor duke Frederick, to renew the union between them, and to let him have a sight of the late duke's will, that he might see if there was any thing in it in favour of the eldest prince, in relation to the ducal part of the duchy of Sleswick; the duke refused both the one and the other: alledging, that the treaty of Altena had not been observed, or justice done to the ducal house, particularly in restoring the seigniority of Gottes-Gabre, in the island of Aroa. In the mean time, the guarantees of the treaty of Altena, seeing both sides inclined to a rupture, interposed their good offices, and engaged them to hold conferences for composing their differences, which were accordingly held at Penemburg: but the duke continuing to introduce Swedish forces into Holstein, and build and enlarge his fortifications during the time of the treaty, the king of Denmark marched an army into the country, in the year 1697, and caused the new fortifications to be demolished, which the duke at that time, not finding himself in a condition to oppose, thought fit to acquiesce in, till the death of the then king, which happened the 4th of September 1699, when he was succeeded by his son Frederick IV.

The duke looked upon this as a favourable opportunity to rebuild the fortifications which had been destroyed, especially having married the king of Sweden's sister, and being assured of support from that crown: he began therefore to repair the demolished fortifications, as he insisted he had a right to do by the treaty of Altena, and introduced into this country a considerable number of Swedish troops, to prevent their being demolished again. The mediators and guarantees of the treaty of Altena, employed their good offices to prevent a rupture, and proposed that both the Swedes and the Danes should withdraw their troops out of Holstein, and that the fortifications should not be proceeded in till the matter was settled by a treaty. But the Dane being determined on a war both with Sweden and Holstein, and having entered into a confederacy both with Russia and Poland for that end, would not hearken to any pacific measures, but, on the contrary, ordered his general, the duke of Wirtemberg, to demolish Hufum, Frederickstadt, and other places belonging to the duke of Holstein, which he soon after effected; and not content with razing such new fortifications as had been erected, invested Tonningen, in which General Bannier commanded with a garrison of five thousand men.

The princes guarantees hereupon gave the king of Denmark to understand, that since he had rejected all their friendly proposals, they should no longer see the treaty of Altena broken, or suffer the duke of Holstein to be dispossessed of his country again, under the pretence of opposing the building of forts which were already demolished. The duke of Holstein also published a manifesto, shewing the right he had, by the treaty of Altena, to build fortifications in his dominions, and the injustice of the Danish invasion. And not only the German princes, but the Dutch joined their forces with the Swedes, in order to bring the Danes to reason; and, marching towards Tonningen, the Danish general thought fit to raise the siege, without coming to a battle. The English and Dutch also sent each of them a squadron into the Baltick, and joining the Swedish fleet, compelled the Danes to retire into the harbour of Copenhagen. In the mean time, the young king of Sweden landed with fifteen thousand horse and foot upon the island of Zeeland, about three miles to the southward of Elsinore, and was preparing to invest Copenhagen; when the Dane finding himself overpowered, was glad to accept of such terms as the princes guarantees, who, at this time held their conferences at Travendale, were pleased to prescribe to him.

It was agreed by this treaty, which was concluded the 18th of August, 1700, that the house of Holstein should continue independent sovereigns in Holstein and Sleswick; and that the crown of Denmark should pay the duke of Holstein two hundred and sixty thousand crowns for the damages

damages they had done him. A misunderstanding, however, happened between the two courts the year following; one part of the Chapter of Lubeck chusing the brother of the duke of Holstein coadjutor and successor to their bishop, and the other chusing the king of Denmark's son.

The bishop dying, in 1705, the king of Denmark determined to make good his son's election to that bishopric by force, and took several places belonging to Lubeck; but the court of Great Britain interpoling, the duke of Holstein's brother was afterwards confirmed in the possession of the bishopric of Lubeck, in consideration of a subsidy granted by Great Britain to Denmark, for a body of Danish troops that were to join the allies against France, which they could not have had, if the war had been revived at that time in the north: one article in this treaty being, that the duke of Holstein should permit that body of Danes to pass through his territories, and join the confederates.

The duke of Holstein having been killed at the battle of Lissa in Poland, in 1702, and succeeded by his son Charles Frederick (the late duke) then an infant of two years old, the duke of Holstein Eutin, brother to the late duke of Holstein Gottorp, and afterwards bishop of Lubeck, was constituted regent of Holstein, during the minority of his nephew.

In the year 1709, Charles XII. being defeated by the Russians at Pultowa, Frederick king of Denmark immediately joined his former allies, the Czar and Augustus king of Poland, recalled the Danish troops which were in the emperor's service in Hungary, and quartered them in Holstein: he transported ten thousand men from Norway to Denmark, levied new troops at Hamburg, and fitted out a strong squadron of men of war; and having assembled an army of eighteen or twenty thousand men, proclaimed a fast to implore a blessing upon his designs. The king of Denmark, also, on the 28th of November 1709, published a manifesto, to justify his intended enterprize, setting forth, that the ambitious designs of the king of Sweden had, for several years past, occasioned great devastations in the kingdoms of the north; and that he had received repeated instances of the animosity that prince entertained against him and his subjects, as well by the opposition made to his interest by the Swedish ministers in foreign courts, as by several expressions in his own letters, and therefore thought himself obliged to prevent the impending danger, and not imprudently wait till the designs of the Swedes were ripe for execution. He complained also of the dedication of a book, wherein the king of Sweden is styled emperor of Scandinavia, of which Denmark and Norway are parts, and of the Swedes granting passes to foreign vessels on the Sound, whereby the revenue of Denmark was impaired.

These reasons induced the king to declare war against all the territories of Sweden, except those in Germany; and embarking six thousand horse and dragoons, and twelve thousand foot, he made a descent upon Schonen, landing at Helsingburg the 12th of November 1709; but it being winter-time, he only took up his quarters in the country towns at first, and invited the people of Sweden to join him, waiting for a proper season to enter upon action, which gave the Swedes time to put themselves in a posture of defence. About the middle of January, by the favour of a hard frost, the Danes advanced towards Christianstadt, where a battalion of Saxons, being in garrison, laid down their arms, and joined the Danes, whereby that town fell into their hands. They afterwards made themselves masters of Carelshaven, in the province of Bleking, and threatened Carelsroon, where the Swedish fleet and magazines were laid up. At the same time a strong detachment extended themselves towards Holland on the western side of Schonen; and their forces receiving frequent supplies, the Danish army was considerably increased, and became very formidable; but the Swedish general, count Steinbock, having assembled eighteen or twenty thousand men, and marching towards Helsingburg, as if he intended to cut off the communication of the Danes with that place, they immediately abandoned all their conquests, quitting Carelshaven and Christianstadt, and retreated to Helsingburg, near which place the armies came to an engagement, and the Danes were entirely defeated; a day or two after they quitted Helsingburg, transporting the remainder of their troops to Denmark in the night, which, after their ill success, did not amount to above six thousand or seven thousand men. And thus ingloriously ended the king of Denmark's expedition against Schonen, which the Swedes considered as a just punishment for his pertidious breach of treaties.

The Danes having been disappointed in their enterprize

upon Schonen, the next year joined the troops of king Augustus and the Czar, and fell upon Swedish Pomerania, destroying the whole country in a most barbarous manner; and the Swedish forces, not being strong enough to oppose these united powers, retired into Stralsund, the isle of Rugen, and other places of security. The king of Denmark, while the Muscovites and the Saxons blocked up Stralsund, passed the Elbe, and entered the duchy of Bremen, where the Swedish general not having a sufficient body of troops to oppose him, the Dane took the town of Staden, and made himself master of the whole country. In their return, the Danes insulted the city of Hamburg, threatening them with a bombardment, to avoid which, the burghers were compelled to raise them two hundred and thirty thousand rix dollars. Count Steinbock, the Swedish general, found means afterwards, on the 22d of December, 1712, to engage the Danes singly, when they were separated from their allies near Wismar; and having given them a great defeat, pursued them into Holstein, seized the magazines the Danes had laid up there, and put the Danish Holstein under contribution; from hence he marched to Pinenburgh, near Hamburg, where he determined to burn the Danish city of Altena, not so much by way of retaliation, or revenge for the many Swedish cities destroyed by the Danes, and their allies the Muscovites and Saxons, as he declared in a memorial, published on this occasion, as to deter them for the future from committing the like barbarities.

The Danish, Saxon and Muscovite forces being now joined, to the number of fifty thousand men, and marching towards count Steinbock, whose army did not consist of above fourteen or fifteen thousand, that general found himself under the necessity of retiring into the ducal Holstein, whither the allies followed him, and pressing him with all imaginable eagerness, he threw himself into Tonningen, and by that means avoided them for that time, which the Dane afterwards made a pretence for seizing the duke of Holstein's dominions, alledging, that the governor of Tonningen admitted general Steinbock into the place, by the direction of his master the duke of Holstein (who was not at that time above twelve years of age) this occurrence happening in February, 1712-13; but however that be, the confederates blocked up the city of Tonningen till May following, and the Swedes not being in a condition to send general Steinbock any reinforcements or supplies, he was obliged to surrender himself, and his little army, consisting of nine thousand men, prisoners of war, on condition of keeping their cloaths and baggage, and being exchanged or ransomed the first opportunity; and thus, for a little time, the war seemed to be at an end in Germany.

The next year the Muscovite invested Stetin; when the king of Prussia so managed the matter, that by the agreement of the Czar and the Swedish governor, the town was sequestered into the hands of his Prussian majesty, and agreed to be garrisoned by an equal number of Prussians and Holsteiners, but was to be restored to the king of Sweden at the end of the war. In the latter end of November, 1714, the king of Sweden returning out of Turkey, arrived at the city of Stralsund, and found a league was formed against him, to which the kings of Denmark, Prussia and Poland, and the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, were parties, the avowed design whereof was, to preserve the peace of Germany, which was proposed to be done by securing the sequestration of Stetin to the king of Prussia, and the possession of Bremen and Ferden, and whatever else the Dane had seized of the dominions of Sweden in Germany, to the Dane, and those to whom he should, or had assigned his interest in those conquests. This the king of Sweden thought highly unreasonable, viz. That he should not be permitted to recover those territories again, which had been surprized in his absence.

The kings of Prussia and England insisted, that the restoring the king of Sweden these territories, would embroil the north of Germany in a war, and joined in a confederacy against the distressed king of Sweden, who had before the Muscovite, the king of Poland, and the king of Denmark to contend with; and the king of Prussia, on the 28th of April, 1715, proclaimed war against Sweden, disarmed the regiment of Holstein, which was in Stetin, entering upon that city as a conquest from Sweden, and holding it no longer in sequestration. The Danes and Prussians soon after assembled their forces to the number of sixty thousand men, and appeared before Stralsund, under the walls of which city the king of Sweden found himself obliged to retire, his army not consisting of more than

than a fourth part of the enemy's number. In the month of July a treaty was set on foot between the king of Denmark and the court of Hanover; by which the king of Denmark stipulated to deliver up Bremen and Verden, which he had taken from the king of Sweden, to the elector of Hanover, in consideration of the elector's entering into the war against Sweden; and advancing a sum of money to his Danish majesty.

The confederates before Stralsund being joined by twenty-four thousand Russians, and a body of Saxons, carried on the siege of that town with great vigour; but finding that the place continually received fresh supplies and reinforcements from the island of Rugen, which lies over-against it, they landed a great body of troops on the island, and, after a sharp dispute, in which the king of Sweden was present in person, made themselves masters of it, on the seventeenth of November. But the king of Sweden determined to defend the town to the last extremity; and it was a terrible winter's siege, the centinels being frequently frozen to death at their posts; and the attacks were desperate, in one of which the confederates lost near a thousand men; however, they at length prevailed by their numbers, and the king of Sweden, finding the town not tenable, retired in a light frigate, and arrived safely in Sweden, giving the governor orders to capitulate, which he did the latter end of December, on very honourable terms; and both the town and the island of Rugen were put into the possession of the king of Denmark, and all the inhabitants of the Swedish Pomerania were obliged to take an oath of allegiance to him, except those of the city and district of Stetin, the islands of Usedom and Wollin, and the lands between the Oder and the river Pene, which were left in the hands of his Prussian majesty. The city of Wismar, in the duchy of Mecklenburgh, the only town which the Swedes had left in Germany, was invested by the Danes, Prussians, Hanoverians, and Russians, the next spring, and obliged to surrender; after which, the king of Denmark was left in possession of it; and thus ended the war in Germany.

The Danes and Russians then made great preparations for invading the king of Sweden's dominions in Schonen. The Czar of Moscow went in person for that purpose to Copenhagen, whither his generals led an army of thirty thousand horse and foot. The Danes also assembled between twenty and thirty thousand of their troops for this expedition, and had prepared near eight hundred vessels to transport them. But great part of the Danish fleet being employed in Norway during the summer, to oppose an enterprize of the Swedes on that side, all these preparations came to nothing. The Czar of Moscow upbraided the king of Denmark, that his fleet was not ready in time; and the Dane pretended to be very angry with the Russian monarch, that he would not make the descent in the latter end of the year; which the Czar observed was impracticable, there being no forage to be found, and the king of Sweden being ready to receive them at the head of forty thousand veteran troops; and upon this the Danes and Muscovites, who had been so long in a confederacy against Sweden, began to look very cool upon each other. The Dane drew up his forces under the cannon of Copenhagen, as if he had some jealousy of his old ally, and the Czar soon after returned with his troops to Germany; and it seems not only the Dane, but other German princes, began to be apprehensive that if this enterprize had succeeded, the Czar would have made himself master of Sweden, and have been a very formidable neighbour to many of them; which the Dane did not sufficiently consider when the scheme was first laid for the descent on Schonen; but being now pretty well convinced of his error, he chose rather to sit down with the vast expence he had been at for the invasion of Sweden, and let the affair entirely drop, then contribute any farther to the aggrandizing the Russian emperor, who was become too powerful already. The king of Denmark being now left almost alone to defend himself against Sweden, was threatened in his turn with an invasion of Zeeland by his Swedish majesty, which had certainly been put in execution, had it not been that king George I. being under some apprehensions that those preparations were intended against his British dominions, or rather for the recovery of Bremen and Verden, had thereupon sent a squadron of men of war to the assistance of his Danish majesty, which put an end to the king of Sweden's intended enterprize against Zeeland. The following year, 1718, the Swedes marched two armies into Norway, one to the northward, as high as Drontheim, and the other, led by the king in person, towards Christiana, laying the whole country under contribution, there being no army

in Norway strong enough to oppose them; but the king of Sweden, laying siege to Frederickshal, was unfortunately shot in the trenches, and the Danes and Hanoverians thereby delivered from their fears: for had the Swedes made themselves masters of Frederickshal, as it was computed they might have done in a fortnight more, all Norway had been irrecoverably lost, and the Danish dominions reduced to a very narrow compass.

By the death of the king of Sweden, the war between Denmark and that crown was in a manner brought to a conclusion, though the peace was not formally signed till the year 1720, when the Swedes being invaded and distressed by the Russians, were obliged to accept of such conditions as the mediators and guarantees of it, the kings of Great Britain and France, were pleased to prescribe. By the fifth article of this treaty, the king of Denmark obliged himself not to assist his czarish majesty against Sweden, or permit the Russian men of war to enter his ports. And by the sixth article, the Swedes obliged themselves not to oppose such measures as should be taken by the said mediators in behalf of the king of Denmark, in relation to the dominions of the duke of Holstein. By the seventh article, the king of Denmark promises to deliver up to Sweden the city of Stralsund, and part of Pomerania, as far as the river Pene; to evacuate the fortrefs of Marstrand, the isle of Rugen, and all other islands taken by the Danes in the late war; as also the town of Wismar in Mecklenburg: in consideration whereof the Swedes, by the ninth article, renounce the privilege of passing the Sound without paying toll, and agreed to pay the same tolls as the English and Dutch. And by the tenth article, the crown of Sweden engages to pay the king of Denmark six hundred thousand crowns before the above-said places be delivered to the Swedes. And by a separate article, it was agreed that Wismar, the fortifications whereof were demolished, should never be fortified again. As to Bremen and Verden, these provinces had been confirmed to king George by another treaty.

By the abovesaid treaty, his Danish majesty obtained the guarantee of the French king, for the possession of the duchy of Sleswick; and the king of Great Britain renewed his guarantee of that duchy, which he had given by a former treaty. The king of Denmark now reigning in peace, applied himself to the promoting the trade of his kingdom, but had the misfortune to see his capital city of Copenhagen almost destroyed by fire, which happened in the year 1728. His first queen was the princess Louisa, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, duke of Mecklenburg, by whom he had issue prince Christian, born December 10, 1699, and Charlotte Amelia, born October 6, 1706, and some other children who died in their infancy. His second wife, the daughter of count Raventlau, his chancellor, he married within four days after the decease of his first queen, and died the thirteenth of October, 1730, in the sixty-first year of his age.

Christian VI. his son, born in December, 1699, married Sophia Magdalena of Brandenburg-Culembach, by whom he had issue his present majesty Frederic V. born March 31, 1723, and the princess Louisa, born October 19, 1726, and married October 1, 1749, to the duke of Saxe-Hilburghausen. He began his reign with some popular acts, particularly in abolishing the monopolies for the sole vending of wine, brandy, salt and tobacco, which were very grievous to the subject. In the year 1732, he acceded to the treaty between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg, whereby he obtained them guarantees for his own dominions, and guaranteed the dominions of those powers, and the pragmatic sanction; and by a separate article in this treaty, king Christian agreed to pay the duke of Holstein one million of rix-dollars, on his recovering his right to the duchy of Sleswick; and in pursuance of this treaty, in 1734, he sent six thousand men to the assistance of the emperor against the French; and in 1736, on the inhabitants paying him five hundred thousand marks of silver, he relinquished his pretensions to the city of Hamburg.

About the year 1739, the Danes seizing the lordship of Steinhurst, which his Britannick majesty imagined himself entitled to, as duke of Lunenburg, a skirmish happened between the troops of Hanover and those of Denmark, wherein several were killed on both sides. The Hanoverians recovered the territory in dispute; however, as the Danes seemed determined not to relinquish their claim, a treaty was set on foot between those powers, and Britain was then obliged to pay a subsidy to the Danes for six thousand men, (which never did them any service) for permitting the Hanoverians to enter Steinhurst. A quarrel
also

also broke out between the Danes and the Dutch, concerning the fishery on the coast of Iceland: the Danish guardships seized on some of the Dutch fishing-vessels, and carried them to Copenhagen; but the Hollanders threatening to make reprisals, those vessels were released; however, the Danes are said to have carried their point in this dispute also.

On July 26, Frederic V. succeeded his father, Christian VI. who reigned sixteen years with great reputation. This prince trod in his father's foot-steps, encouraged the manufactures, extended the commerce, and improved the trade of his country. He was first married to the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty; but upon the death of his queen who was the mother of his present Danish majesty, he again married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel, and died in 1766, being succeeded by his son, Christian VII. his present majesty, who must be owned, does not seem likely to advance the honour and consequence of the Danes, by pursuing the salutary steps marked out for him by his honoured progenitors. His resolution of visiting the principal kingdoms and states of Europe, which he executed in the year 1768, seemed indeed to indicate a mind intent upon availing itself of foreign polity, to the advancement of his own dominions; but the manner in which he conducted himself in that extensive progress, by no means realized those hopes; and since his return home, he is said to have fallen into a state of bodily and mental imbecility. He married the princess Caroline Matilda, sister to our present most gracious sovereign, George III. by whom he has issue one son, Frederic, born January 27, 1768, and a daughter, born July 7, 1771.

It has been justly remarked that a weak prince is generally the dupe of some insinuating and plausible favourite; this monarch entrusted the whole administration of the kingdom to a German adventurer, named Struensee, whom he created an earl, and to whom the most considerable of the nobility paid servile homage; the queen is said to have had an unhappy attachment to this prime minister.

The queen dowager, Julia Maria, sister to the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel, and mother to the king's half brother, prince Frederic, formed a plan to ruin this favourite with his master, and the queen consort with her husband; this she suddenly and completely effected in January, 1772, since which the British court has been very careful, and as successful, in concealing the causes which led to this unhappy event; nothing has been announced by authority respecting them. All that is certainly known is that some of the principal nobility were suddenly seized, and committed to close confinement. Count Struensee and his co-adjutor count Brandt, were brought to trial, sentenced to suffer death, and were accordingly executed. The life of the queen consort seems to have been preserved by the resolute application of our minister at that court; whether from the rage of the prevailing faction, or the resentment of an incensed kingdom, is not easy absolutely to fix; she, however, quitted Denmark, and resided at Zell until her death, which happened about three years after, by a putrid fever.

Prince Frederic, the king's half brother, was married October 21, 1773, to the princess Sophia Frederica, niece to the reigning duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin.

C H A P. V.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

L A P L A N D.

S E C T. I.

Containing an Account of the Division of the Country, its Boundaries and Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Animals, Rivers, Lakes, Mines, &c. also of the inhabitants of LAPLAND, their Persons, Dispositions, Dress, Manner of Living, Diversions, Employments, Method of Travelling, Hunting and Fishing, &c.

AS Lapland differs, with respect to the manners and customs of the inhabitants, &c. from the other parts of Europe, we shall therefore give the reader a particular account of this country, which is divided into three parts, which are severally subject to Denmark, Sweden and Russia. There being a great similarity between these divisions, it will, on that account, be sufficient to describe only Swedish Lapland, which is by far the most considerable and best peopled; we must however observe, that all the country in general is called Lapland, which lies above the gulf of Bothnia, along the coast of the north sea, even to the white sea.

The ancients called the people of this country Scythians, the name of Lapland or Lappia, being unknown to them: they at first inhabited Finland, from whence they were driven more northwards; after which they were called Lappes, which, in the Finic tongue, signifies persons banished from their country and driven to the most remote places. But the inhabitants call themselves Samienladi, considering the other name as reproachful.

This country, namely, Swedish Lapland, is bounded on the east by Russian Lapland, on the west by a ridge of mountains that separate it from Norway; on the north by Danish Lapland; and on the south by Bothnia Angermania, and Semperland. Its greatest extent from east to west is about three hundred and sixty miles; and in breadth, it extends from sixty-five degrees, thirty minutes, to sixty-nine degrees of north latitude. It is divided into six provinces, or districts, the names of which are, 1. An-

germanland-Lapmark, 2. Uma-Lapmark, 3. Pitha-Lapmark, 4. Lulla-Lapmark, 5. Torno-Lapmark, and 6. Kimi-Lapmark.

The first of these provinces is the most southern, and contains only one town of any consequence, which is called Aofalko, and is situated about three hundred miles distant from Stockholm.

The second province, which adjoins to the former, contains two little villages, viz. Semisgorfic and Loifby.

The third province is situated between the Norwegian mountains, and contains four unimportant villages; namely, Sitonia, Arieplogs, Locktari, and Arivitzerfs.

The fourth province, which adjoins to the latter, contains three villages, viz. Jackmoth, Sirkelucht, and Torpa-jour.

The fifth province, which is the most northern of Swedish Lapland, is well watered; it contains the great lake Enure, and the towns of Somby, Kelajorsui, Kitijersui, Kimibi, Solden-Kyle, and Kimi.

The sixth province, which is contiguous to Russian and Danish Lapland, is likewise well watered by many rivers, has several lakes, and contains four towns, viz. Tingavara, Sandewara, Ronnala, and Titifara.

The above-mentioned provinces receive their name from the respective rivers which water them; and are again subdivided into smaller districts, called Biara, and these contain a certain number of families, called by the Swedes rekars, each rekar, or family, is allowed a considerable quantity of land, with forests, lakes and brooks, for the maintenance of their families and cattle; but their lands not being inclosed, there is frequently a change of property among them.

This country is situated so near the pole, that the sun neither sets in summer, nor rises in winter. In the latter season, the cold is so intense, that none but the natives are able to bear it. The most rapid rivers are then frozen up, and the ice is two or three, and sometimes four or five feet thick. In summer, the weather is as sultry as it is

than a fourth part of the enemy's number. In the month of July a treaty was set on foot between the king of Denmark and the court of Hanover, by which the king of Denmark stipulated to deliver up Bremen and Verden, which he had taken from the king of Sweden, to the elector of Hanover, in consideration of the elector's entering into the war against Sweden, and advancing a sum of money to his Danish majesty.

The confederates before Stralsund being joined by twenty-four thousand Russians, and a body of Saxons, carried on the siege of that town with great vigour; but finding that the place continually received fresh supplies and reinforcements from the island of Rugen, which lies over-against it, they landed a great body of troops on the island, and, after a sharp dispute, in which the king of Sweden was present in person, made themselves masters of it, on the seventeenth of November. But the king of Sweden determined to defend the town to the last extremity; and it was a terrible winter's siege, the centinels being frequently frozen to death at their posts; and the attacks were desperate, in one of which the confederates lost near a thousand men; however, they at length prevailed by their numbers, and the king of Sweden, finding the town not tenable, retired in a light frigate, and arrived safely in Sweden, giving the governor orders to capitulate, which he did the latter end of December, on very honourable terms; and both the town and the island of Rugen were put into the possession of the king of Denmark, and all the inhabitants of the Swedish Pomerania were obliged to take an oath of allegiance to him, except those of the city and district of Stetin, the islands of Ufedom and Wollin, and the lands between the Oder and the river Pene, which were left in the hands of his Prussian majesty. The city of Wismar, in the duchy of Mecklenburgh, the only town which the Swedes had left in Germany, was invested by the Danes, Prussians, Hanoverians, and Russians, the next spring, and obliged to surrender; after which, the king of Denmark was left in possession of it; and thus ended the war in Germany.

The Danes and Russians then made great preparations for invading the king of Sweden's dominions in Schonen. The Czar of Moscow went in person for that purpose to Copenhagen, whither his generals led an army of thirty thousand horse and foot. The Danes also assembled between twenty and thirty thousand of their troops for this expedition, and had prepared near eight hundred vessels to transport them. But great part of the Danish fleet being employed in Norway during the summer, to oppose an enterprize of the Swedes on that side, all these preparations came to nothing. The Czar of Moscow upbraided the king of Denmark, that his fleet was not ready in time; and the Dane pretended to be very angry with the Russian monarch; that he would not make the descent in the latter end of the year; which the Czar observed was impracticable, there being no forage to be found, and the king of Sweden being ready to receive them at the head of forty thousand veteran troops; and upon this the Danes and Muscovites, who had been so long in a confederacy against Sweden, began to look very cool upon each other. The Dane drew up his forces under the cannon of Copenhagen, as if he had some jealousy of his old ally, and the Czar soon after returned with his troops to Germany; and it seems not only the Dane, but other German princes, began to be apprehensive that if this enterprize had succeeded, the Czar would have made himself master of Sweden, and have been a very formidable neighbour to many of them; which the Dane did not sufficiently consider when the scheme was first laid for the descent on Schonen; but being now pretty well convinced of his error, he chose rather to sit down with the vast expence he had been at for the invasion of Sweden, and let the affair entirely drop, then contribute any farther to the aggrandizing the Russian emperor, who was become too powerful already. The king of Denmark being now left almost alone to defend himself against Sweden, was threatened in his turn with an invasion of Zealand by his Swedish majesty, which had certainly been put in execution, had it not been that king George I. being under some apprehensions that those preparations were intended against his British dominions, or rather for the recovery of Bremen and Verden, had thereupon sent a squadron of men of war to the assistance of his Danish majesty, which put an end to the king of Sweden's intended enterprize against Zealand. The following year, 1718, the Swedes marched two armies into Norway, one to the northward, as high as Drontheim, and the other, led by the king in person, towards Christiania, laying the whole country under contribution, there being no army

in Norway strong enough to oppose them; but the king of Sweden, laying siege to Frederickshal, was unfortunately shot in the trenches, and the Danes and Hanoverians thereby delivered from their fears; for had the Swedes made themselves masters of Frederickshal, as it was computed they might have done in a fortnight more, all Norway had been irrecoverably lost, and the Danish dominions reduced to a very narrow compass.

By the death of the king of Sweden, the war between Denmark and that crown was in a manner brought to a conclusion, though the peace was not formally signed till the year 1720, when the Swedes being invaded and distressed by the Russians, were obliged to accept of such conditions as the mediators and guarantees of it, the kings of Great Britain and France, were pleased to prescribe. By the fifth article of this treaty, the king of Denmark obliged himself not to assist his czarish majesty against Sweden, or permit the Russian men of war to enter his ports. And by the sixth article, the Swedes obliged themselves not to oppose such measures as should be taken by the said mediators in behalf of the king of Denmark, in relation to the dominions of the duke of Holstein. By the seventh article, the king of Denmark promises to deliver up to Sweden the city of Stralsund, and part of Pomerania, as far as the river Pene; to evacuate the fortrefs of Marstrand, the isle of Rugen, and all other islands taken by the Danes in the late war; as also the town of Wismar in Mecklenburg: in consideration whereof the Swedes, by the ninth article, renounce the privilege of passing the Sound without paying toll, and agreed to pay the same tolls as the English and Dutch. And by the tenth article, the crown of Sweden engages to pay the king of Denmark six hundred thousand crowns before the above-said places be delivered to the Swedes. And by a separate article, it was agreed that Wismar, the fortifications whereof were demolished, should never be fortified again. As to Bremen and Verden, these provinces had been confirmed to king George by another treaty.

By the above-said treaty, his Danish majesty obtained the guarantee of the French king, for the possession of the duchy of Sleswick; and the king of Great Britain renewed his guarantee of that duchy, which he had given by a former treaty. The king of Denmark now reigning in peace, applied himself to the promoting the trade of his kingdom, but had the misfortune to see his capital city of Copenhagen almost destroyed by fire, which happened in the year 1728. His first queen was the princess Louisa, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, duke of Mecklenburg, by whom he had issue prince Christian, born December 10, 1699, and Charlotte Amelia, born October 6, 1706, and some other children who died in their infancy. His second wife, the daughter of count Raventlau, his chancellor, he married within four days after the decease of his first queen, and died the thirteenth of October, 1730, in the sixty-first year of his age.

Christian VI. his son, born in December, 1699, married Sophia Magdalena of Brandenburg-Culmbach, by whom he had issue his present majesty Frederic V. born March 31, 1723, and the princess Louisa, born October 19, 1726, and married October 1, 1749, to the duke of Saxe-Hilburghausen. He began his reign with some popular acts, particularly in abolishing the monopolies for the sole vending of wine, brandy, salt and tobacco, which were very grievous to the subject. In the year 1732, he acceded to the treaty between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg, whereby he obtained them guarantees for his own dominions, and guaranteed the dominions of those powers, and the pragmatic sanction; and by a separate article in this treaty, king Christian agreed to pay the duke of Holstein one million of rix-dollars, on his recovering his right to the duchy of Sleswick; and in pursuance of this treaty, in 1734, he sent six thousand men to the assistance of the emperor against the French; and in 1736, on the inhabitants paying him five hundred thousand marks of silver, he relinquished his pretensions to the city of Hamburg.

About the year 1739, the Danes seizing the lordship of Steinhurst, which his Britannick majesty imagined himself entitled to, as duke of Lunenburg, a skirmish happened between the troops of Hanover and those of Denmark, wherein several were killed on both sides. The Hanoverians recovered the territory in dispute; however, as the Danes seemed determined not to relinquish their claim, a treaty was set on foot between those powers, and Britain was then obliged to pay a subsidy to the Danes for six thousand men, (which never did them any service) for permitting the Hanoverians to enter Steinhurst. A quarrel also

These people are of a brown and swarthy complexion, which is the case with the inhabitants both of very cold and very hot countries; their hair is black, and their faces broad, with peaked chins and hollow cheeks. They are generally of a middling stature.

The all-wise Creator has made a provision for them against the severity of winter, by placing there a multitude of animals, whose soft and warm furs and skins defend them from the most piercing cold. The upper garment both of the men and women is made of skins with the hair on, formed like the ploughman's frock, girt about them with a broad belt; they wear breeches which reach down to their ankles, and their cap, which is made of the skin of a young rein-deer, fits as close to their heads as a skull-cap, covering all the neck and shoulders. Their shoes are peaked, and turned up at the toes.

The finery of the women consists in a kind of pewter wire, with which they work the bosoms of their coats, their girdles, and the edges of their caps. Neither sex know what it is to wear linen; but in the cold season wear next the body a fawn's skin waistcoat. Almost the only difference between the dress of the men and that of the women is, that the latter is somewhat longer. A purse hangs at their girdles, with their money, rings, and toys; a leathern bag and a knife.

The Laplanders afford an instance of a whole European nation subsisting contentedly without ploughing, sowing, or planting; without spinning or weaving, brewing or baking. As their lot is cast in a country where winter takes up the greatest part of the year, and consequently renders it impossible for them to provide a sufficient quantity of hay and fodder for great herds of cattle, the bountiful Creator has bestowed on them a species of animals that are provided for with little trouble: this is the rein-deer, which of all tame animals requires the least attendance and support, while it procures the greatest advantage to its owners. These creatures provide for themselves, feeding in summer on leaves, moss, and grass, of which they find as much as is sufficient for them, even among the mountains; and in winter live only on a kind of moss that grows in almost every part of Lapland. They come at this moss by scraping away the snow with their feet, and are taught by instinct to find the spots where it grows. During a journey of several days, in which they are drawn in sledges by these animals, the only trouble a traveller is at, is either to turn them loose, or tie them to a tree, where the quantity of food they eat at a time does not exceed a handful. The Laplanders are at other times only solicitous to keep their herds of rein-deer from going astray, and to protect them from wild beasts; and this, particularly in summer, they think no inconsiderable task. They have no occasion to house these animals, for they always lie out in the open air, without any inconvenience; and when after a strict search they find that there is no danger from beasts of prey, they turn them loose into the woods; but they are watched by the Lapland herdsmen, when they are under any apprehension of danger from that quarter.

With respect to their manner of living and habitations, they consist of two different tribes, namely, the Forest, and Mountain Laplanders. The former spend the greatest part of the summer in the woods, and have no property; but the latter live among the mountains. The food of the former chiefly consists of fish and fowl; but that of the latter principally depends on their herds of rein-deer. The Laplanders in general, and particularly the Foresters, are esteemed good marksmen. They have a great aversion to mining. In most of the lapmarks they make it their employment to carry the burghers to the yearly fairs; and some of the Laplanders, for a reasonable reward, look after the rein-deer belonging to other people. Most of them choose rather to sleep away the whole day in their tents, than to engage in any laborious employment; but those whom want has prompted to industry, give evident proofs that they are not without a capacity for mechanic trades, nor even for exquisite pieces of workmanship. Their boats and utensils are plain indications of their skill, and some of their sledges are inlaid with horn in a variety of figures. Their horn spoons, their Runic calendars, their moulds for casting pewter utensils, their bows and arrows, and the like, are all of their own making.

The Lapland women make use of a horn perforated with large and small holes, through which they draw pewter into wires of different thickness, with which they neatly embroider their girdles, cloaths, and sledge furniture. They also prepare all kinds of skins by various methods, and cut out and sew the habits they wear.

Besides the herds of rein-deer, several of them are masters of a considerable quantity of silver in rings, buckles, large and small spoons, cups, &c. and money grows more and more in use among them: but they prefer the Holland rix-dollar to all other coins, because the Norwegians, with whom they trade in summer, will not take any other money in exchange for their goods. The rest of their substance consists of domestic utensils and other furniture, as tents, iron pots, copper and brass kettles, furs and other cloaths, bed-furniture, fine sledges with harnesses, hatchets, boats, and fishing-tackle. As to the poorer sort, they are obliged to be satisfied with fewer conveniencies.

The procuring food for their herds of rein-deer being the chief employment of the Laplanders, it occasions them frequently to shift their habitations. At the approach of spring most of them move, with their families, twenty or thirty Swedish miles among the mountains of Norway, as far as the North Sea, where they fix their abode till autumn, and then quit the mountains and return to the south, to prevent their being frozen to death for want of fuel, and their rein-deer being starved, there being little or no moss so far to the north. The other Laplanders, who make no excursions to the mountains, but dwell in the village districts, or live by fishing, likewise never settle in one place: to this they are obliged by their rein-deer, which at certain times shew a disposition to remove, either from the want of fodder, or their being sensible of the changes that will happen in the weather.

On account of their unsettled way of life, they are obliged to provide portable dwellings; and such are their tents, which are thus formed: they first set up several poles in a circular position, gradually closing together on the top, much in the form of a sugar-loaf with the top of it broken off. Over these poles they lay a kind of coarse cloth, and thus form tents, some of which are sufficient to contain twenty persons. The hearth is in the middle, with stones laid round it, to prevent the fire from spreading. An aperture is left at the top, where the poles almost join, which serves both for chimney and window. From this hole hang two chains with hooks at the end, to hang the pots on, in order to boil their victuals, or melt the ice or snow into water to drink. Round the inside of the tent they lay their cloaths to keep out the cold wind, and spread branches of birch or fir round the tent, by way of seats to sit upon; for they have neither chairs, stools, nor benches. About the tent stand the cupboards, where they keep their provisions; these are fixed on posts or blocks of wood, and have some resemblance to a pigeon-house erected on pillars.

The Laplanders, whenever they have an opportunity, pitch their tents near dried pines, for the convenience of fuel; but in spring and autumn they are forced to be contented with brush wood. It ought not to be omitted, that in some of the lapmarks they erect boarded cottages, or wooden houses, that resemble those of the Swedes.

Sledges, shaped like small boats, with a broad keel, serve them for carriages; and those so thick, that no water can penetrate through them. They have a back-board for the traveller to lean against, who sits fast laced in the sledge, and well secured from the cold. This vehicle is drawn by the rein-deer with incredible swiftness through the snow over mountains and valleys. The rein-deer is harnessed with a large cloth girt, embroidered with pewter wire, and fastened on his back. The bit is a piece of leather tacked to the reins of the bridle over the deer's head and neck, and from the breast a leather strap passing under the belly is fastened to the fore part of the sledge, which serves instead of shafts. The rein-deer in a great measure lose their vigour and swiftness in summer, when these are less necessary; but even then they are very proper for carrying the Laplander's effects from place to place.

They use a kind of skates, like those of the Fins and Norlanders; consisting of a board three or four Swedish ells in length, and six inches broad, and ending in a point which turns up before. With these boards fastened to their feet, and a pole, with a round piece of wood at the end to prevent its sinking too deep in the snow, the Laplanders skate along with such swiftness as to overtake wolves and other beasts.

Those among them who practise fishing, and live in South Lapmark, make use of a kind of boat or little bark for crossing rivers, made of slight boards curiously joined together with filaments of the roots of trees, or hempen strings, and are so light that a Laplander carries his boat on his shoulders, with the oars and every thing belonging to it, besides his bag of provisions. These boats they steer with amazing dexterity, even among the rocks and down the

the most rapid water-falls; and though the cataract be ever so dreadful, and the Laplander ever so great a stranger to it, he undauntedly ventures down the precipice in his little boat: but when he steers against the stream, and comes to a water-fall, he puts ashore, takes his boat upon his back, and travels till he comes to smooth water.

The inhabitants of the northern lapmarks have larger boats, four or five fathoms in length; these they either haul up the great water-falls with ropes, or where the cascades are small, shove them up with poles; which is done by two men, one of whom sits at the head, and the other at the stern. As for going down the water-falls with the stream, they consider it as attended with no difficulty.

In summer, the mountain Laplanders live chiefly upon milk, and on the cheese made of it, of which they lay up a store for winter. In the month of September, before the piercing frosts set in, they kill as many of their rein-deer as they think will serve them till Christmas; afterwards they kill as many as will supply them the rest of the winter, and sometimes kill one or two occasionally. It is not unusual with the western Laplanders to buy Norway cows and sheep in summer, which they kill for their winter provision. They also eat the flesh of bears and beavers, sea and wild fowl, &c. The poor who live in villages are contented with the flesh of dogs, wolves, foxes, and horses, when they can get them.

The fishing Laplanders live on fish, which they have various ways of dressing; and those who have rein-deer on their high days and festivals, dress flesh and fish together. In summer they buy their salt of the Norwegians, and in winter purchase it of the burghers. Tobacco is not very uncommon among them but they buy it at a very high price. In this country none of the women have any hand in dressing provisions, that office belonging to the master of the house. They never omit saying grace before and after meat, and before they rise from table shake each other by the hand.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Marriage Ceremonies of the LAPLANDERS, Management of their Children; their Diseases, Funeral Rites, Religion, Government, Trade, Revenue, &c.

WHEN a young man has made choice of a female, he employs some friends as mediators with the girl's parents; and these being provided with some bottles of brandy, the suitor accompanies them to the hut of his intended father-in-law, who invites the mediators to enter; but the suitor is left without, till the liquor be drank, and the proposal discussed. After this, he is called in, and entertained with such fare as the hut affords, but without seeing his mistress, who, on this occasion, is obliged to retire. The suitor having at length obtained leave to make his addresses to the girl in person, he goes home, puts on his best attire, and then returns to the hut, when his mistress appears, and he salutes her with a kiss; after which, he presents her with the tongue of a rein-deer, a piece of beaver's flesh, or some other kind of provision. The girl at first declines the offer, it being made in the presence of her relations; but at the same time she makes a signal to the lover to follow her into the fields, where she accepts the presents. Thus encouraged, he begs permission of her to let him sleep with her in the hut: if she consents, she keeps the presents; but if not, she throws them with contempt on the ground.

When the lovers are agreed, the youth is permitted to visit his mistress as often as he thinks proper; but every time he comes, he must purchase this pleasure with a fresh bottle of brandy; a perquisite so agreeable to the father, that he often postpones the celebration of the nuptials for two or three years. At length the ceremony is performed at the nearest church, by the priest of the parish; but even after this, the husband is obliged to serve his father-in-law a whole year, at the expiration of which he retires to his own habitation with his wife, and then receives presents from all his relations and friends. From this time he watches over his wife's conduct with the most jealous attention, and sequesters her from the company of all strangers, especially of the male sex.

Immediately after the birth of a child, they wash the infant all over with snow or cold water; except the head, which must not be touched with water till after baptism. The woman does not remain in child-bed above four or five days, and in fourteen is generally quite recovered. She then carries the child to be baptized; but before she

can reach the residence of the priest, she is often obliged to traverse large forests, mountains, lakes, and wide extended wastes of snow. The infant is fastened in a hollowed piece of wood, stretched naked on a bed of fine moss, covered with the skin of a young rein-deer, and hung by two straps to the back of the mother, who always suckles her own child. This little cradle, when at home, is hung to the roof of the hut, and is swung from one side to the other, to lull the child asleep.

Parents are very careful in teaching their children, as they grow up, most kinds of work; but they have a great aversion to schools. The boys, from their infancy, are taught to practise the bow; and they are not allowed to break their fast till they have hit the mark. The females are also initiated very early in suitable businesses.

There are no physicians in Lapland, nor have they occasion for any, not being subject to those distempers common in other countries. They are chiefly subject to sores, occasioned by the smoke and fire which is almost continually in their huts: they are also sometimes visited with rheumatic pains, and the scurvy; and a few are afflicted with the vertigo and apoplexy. For the cure of all inward disorders, they use a drink made with the root of a certain species of moss, which they call jerth; and when that cannot be procured, they boil the stalk of angelica in the milk of the rein-deer. When they feel a pain in any part of the body, they take a kind of mushroom, which grows upon the birch-tree like a cake; and, having set fire to it, they apply it, burning hot, to the part affected; and this produces a blister, which is supposed to draw off the peccant humour. They have no other plaisters for wounds but the resin which drops from fir-trees. When they have any member benumbed with frost, they put a red-hot iron into a cheese made of rein-deer's milk, and with the fat that drops from it, like an oil, they rub the part, which is almost instantly cured by that method.

If the friends of a Laplander suppose him to be on his death-bed, they exhort him to die in the faith of Christ, and bear his sufferings with resignation, by remembering the passion of our Saviour. But those who have no great regard for religion, forsake the dying person, and think of nothing but the funeral entertainment.

When a person dies, most of the company leave the hut, being of opinion they shall receive some injury from the spirit of the deceased, which they believe remains with the corpse, and takes all opportunities of doing mischief to the living. The deceased is wrapped up in linen, according to his circumstances, and deposited in a coffin by a person selected for that purpose; but this office he will not perform till he receives a consecrated brass ring, which is placed on his left arm, and what he imagines will prevent the ghost of the deceased from doing him any injury.

These people, before they embraced Christianity, used to bury their dead in any common place, which they still do when they are at a great distance from a church. Many of them also preserve the rites of heathenish superstition; for with the body they put into the coffin an ax, a flint and steel, a flask of brandy, some dried fish, and venison. The provision is for his subsistence during the journey; the flint and steel are to furnish him with a light, should he find himself in the dark; and with the ax the deceased is supposed to hew down the bushes and boughs that may obstruct him in the other world.

The friends of the deceased, before they carry the body to the place of interment, kindle a fire of fir-boughs near the coffin, and express their sorrow in tears and lamentations. They walk in procession several times round the body, demanding, in a whining tone, the reason of his leaving them on earth: they ask whether he was out of humour with his wife? whether he was in want of meat, drink, cloathing, or other necessities? and whether he had not succeeded in hunting or fishing? These, and other such interrogations, are intermingled with groans and frightful howlings; and in the interval the priests sprinkle the corpse and the mourners alternately with holy water.

After these ceremonies are ended, the body is conveyed to the place of interment, in a sledge drawn by a rein-deer, and followed by the friends and relations, who shew their concern for the loss of the deceased, by dressing themselves in the worst garments they have, and keeping a continual hooting during the procession. After the ceremony, the people retire; and the sledge, with the cloaths which belonged to the deceased, are the priest's perquisite. Three days after the funeral, the relations and friends of the deceased are invited to an entertainment, where they eat the

flesh of the rein-deer which conveyed the corpse to the grave. The animal being made a sacrifice to the manes of the deceased, they collect the bones together, which, being put into a basket, are with great ceremony interred.

It is customary to divide the effects of the deceased between the brothers and sisters, the former having two-thirds, and the latter one; but the lands, lakes, and rivers, are held jointly by all the children of both sexes, according to the division made by Charles IX. of Sweden, when he assigned to each family a certain tract of land.

The language of the Laplanders is a very barbarous one, and varies in different parts of the country, according to the correspondence which the natives maintain with the different nations; such as the Norwegians, Swedes, Finlanders, and Russians. Arts are very little known among them, except such as necessity has taught them for their own preservation; and most of them are totally ignorant of letters.

It is supposed that Christianity was first introduced into Lapland by St. Eric, about the year 1200. However, no material progress was made in the establishment of it till the last century, when missionaries were sent for that purpose from Norway, Sweden, and Russia. Gustavus Adolphus founded two schools, one in the province of Pitha, and the other in that of Ulma, for instructing the children of the Laplanders in the Christian religion, and in letters. He also ordered several books to be translated from the Swedish into the Lapland language; such as the catechism, with some prayers, and the manual, containing the psalms of David, the proverbs of Solomon, &c. And that they might be encouraged to send their children to school, an annual revenue was allotted to maintain the scholars both in victuals and cloaths. Hence Lapland now produced some preachers which greatly promoted the knowledge of Christianity in that country; for, heretofore, their clergy having been Swedes, whose language the people did not understand, it could not be reasonably supposed they should profit much by their instructions. Since that time, however, the greatest misfortune hath been, that many Laplanders, at present, intermix too much idolatry with the pure profession of Christianity; and from local customs, the ridiculous fondness for omens, particular times and seasons, distinguished by the names of black and white days, &c. retain many of their former superstitions.

They suppose the existence of a good and evil principle, and imagine that these, when at variance, occasion the happiness or misery of mankind. With respect to the pagan superstitions still remaining, they adore the gods Thor, Storjunker and Bæwe, whom they worship under the symbols of stones, trunks of trees, and fire. They have some notion of the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls; for they not only respect the remains of their departed relations and friends, but dread them as being mischievous till they imagine the spirits of the deceased have re-animated other bodies. They also believe there are fairies, that wander among rocks, mountains, rivers, and lakes; and give them also a share of their devotion.

They own one supreme God, whom they arm with thunderbolts: they make the rainbow his bow, and have the same notion of him that the old Pagans had of their Jupiter. They have another subordinate God, to whom they acknowledge they owe all the blessings of life, and never fail to worship him. The sun, whom they call Baiwe, is another of their divinities, because of his influence on the bodies of men and beasts. They have temples and images consecrated to each of their gods. Their idols are either the trunks of trees rudely carved, or of stone. One of these is preserved in the royal cabinet of antiquities at Upsal. All their women are excluded from worship. They anoint the idol with the heart-blood of the sacrifice; and when they cannot reach the top of a mountain consecrated to Storjonkar, one of their deities, they dip a stone in the blood of the sacrifice, throw it up to the mountain, and so conclude their devotion. Sometimes they throw branches of birch and pine about their images.

As the Laplanders have always been charged with practising the art of divination; La Motraye, travelling in their country, enquired what notion they had of witchcraft and magic: to which one of them answered, that the professors of the black art were to be found most commonly in Kimi Lapmark and Finland; that they conversed with the devil, and knew every thing that was done: and if they were provoked by any one, or hired to do a man

mischievous, they could inflict diseases on him, his wife, children, or cattle. He pretended to instance in some whom they had struck blind, and others whose cattle were killed by their sorcery; adding, that there were some of them who could remove the diseases which they themselves, or others, had inflicted: and they had done so on their being treated with good liquors, or receiving handsome presents from the sufferers. They gave our traveller an instance of a young and wealthy Laplander, who, upon breaking his word with a girl he courted, was struck blind by her mother, who was skilful in the black art, and would not restore him to his sight, till he agreed to marry her daughter.

It is certain, that the poor ignorant Laplanders have a very great veneration for those pretenders to magic, and by all imaginable means avoid their anger. The same writer relates, that he hired a person to carry him to the tent of one of these conjurers, in the most northerly part of Lapland, having first given him all possible assurances that he would not betray him to the government (the laws against witchcraft being as severe in Sweden, as they were formerly with us). He found the wizard in a poor hut, and in as wretched circumstances as those people are usually represented to be in this part of the world: upon which he made the common observation, that if these people had really any interest with the devil, he would surely reward them better. The conjurer gave our traveller his hand, and ordered him to follow him to the top of a high mountain, that lay to the eastward of his hut, where he desired him to stand till he fetched his drum, and other utensils necessary to the acting his part. Soon after the man returned with his drum, which he had hid among shrubs and stones, for fear of a discovery. It was of an oval form, and had but one head; there was fastened to it a chain, with several brass rings.

Before the operation began, the wizard demanded if they had any brandy; and half a pint being presented to him, he immediately drank two thirds of it; then putting the chain and rings into the inside of his drum, and turning the bottom upwards, he beat upon it with a forked piece of a rein-deer's horn (the head was covered with a transparent parchment, wretchedly painted with the celestial signs); he beat upon it for a few minutes, the rings all the while jumping about, and making a jingling noise: then he laid himself down flat on his back, setting the head of his drum upon his bare breast, and having shut his eyes, seemed to be in a trance, not breathing for some time; and, having fetched a deep sigh, he gently raised the drum above his head, and looked upon the rings, which he could easily discern through the parchment; and having considered their position, and distance from the celestial figures, he fixed his eyes upon our traveller, and declared that he would run a great hazard upon the water as he returned in his sledge; and again in going down the cataracts, or water-falls, in a boat: that he would have another great escape from fire; that his life would be long and healthful, after he had overcome two great fits of illness, both which would seize him within the space of two years. And as for the interpreter, who led La Motraye to his cell, he directed him to go out a fishing, on the 20th, 22d, 24th, 26th, and 28th days of that month; and the 3d, 6th, 9th, 12th, 16th, 20th, 24th, and 28th, of the next: and he should return home loaded with fish: and the same days in the months of September, October, and November, would be equally fortunate to him in hunting.

When he had finished his predictions, the traveller asked if he could tell whether he was a bachelor, or a married man; into what countries he had travelled, besides Torno, Lapmark, &c. but our conjurer was too wise to guess at things that were past, in which he knew his ignorance might be too easily discovered. Our author afterwards made the poor fellow a present of half a crown, with which he seemed extremely satisfied, as the guide was with the predictions concerning his success in fishing and hunting. So excessive credulous these poor Laplanders are, and so prepossessed in favour of their conjurers, that they implicitly follow their directions. If these pretended wizards tell them, that on such a day they shall take plenty of fish or game, they will not fail to go out that day; and as there is most commonly abundance of both in this country, they usually verify the prediction, by coming home loaded whenever they go to in search of game. And if the wizards mark another day as unfortunate, they infallibly make it so, by not going abroad in quest of any game at that time.

With respect to their government, Lapland being now subject to three different powers, governors, or prefects are deputed by each of them, to preside over their respec-

tive districts. The Laplanders, however, had kings of their own till the year 1277, when the Swedes conquered part of the country, and the remaining part was soon after subdued by the Russians and Norwegians.

The laws of Sweden are observed in Swedish Lapland, which, as we have already noticed, is the most considerable of the three: here are erected three tribunals, or courts of justice: one for Angermanland-Lapmark; a second for Uma, Pitha, and Lula-Lapmark: and the third for Fomo and Kimi-Lapmark; in each of which courts there is a præfect, who determines all causes. They administer justice in the king's name, on which occasions a priest always attends.

Such of the Laplanders, as live near the mountains which part Norway from Sweden, trade with the inhabitants of those countries. Those who are at a greater distance from those mountains trade only with the Swedes; and others, who are situated towards the north and east, trade with the Russians and Finlanders. The commodities they receive from those nations are, rix-dollars, woollen, stuffs, linen, copper, tin, flour, salt, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, and tobacco, of which last article they are extremely fond. They give, in return, rein-deer and fish, of the latter of which they take such large quantities, that they stock whole reservoirs with them, and put them afterwards into barrels, which they carry to the neighbour-

ing countries: namely, the north of Bothnia, and White Russia. They also trade in dried pikes, cheese made of the milk of their rein-deer, fine ermins, and the skins of several wild beasts.

They formerly paid the tribute in skins of wild beasts; but it now consists in a certain coin, rein-deer, and skins, either dressed for certain uses, or raw; and is proportionable to the quantity of land possessed by each head of a family. The largest are styled entire territories, or territories of a full tribute; and the owner is obliged to pay yearly two rix-dollars, in coin, to the crown of Sweden. They who possess a territory in land, of half a tribute, pay only one rix-dollar. But as it happens very often that many of them have no rix-dollars, they are allowed to give skins of foxes or squirrels instead of coin. Fifty squirrels skins, or one fox's skin, with a pair of shoes after the fashion of Lapland, are valued at one rix-dollar; besides which, every head of a family is obliged to give yearly a white fox's skin, or a pair of shoes; and if he cannot procure those things, he must give half a pound of dried pikes. Part of these taxes is employed for the maintenance of the priests who live in that country, to instruct the Laplanders. The inhabitants of the other districts of Lapland pay their revenues in a similar manner to the respective states to which they belong, and trade much in the same commodities.

C H A P. VI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

P O L A N D.

S E C T. I.

Describing the Extent, Situation, Climate, and Produce of POLAND, properly so called; together with the Geographical Division of the Country.

POLAND, before its late dismemberment, was a very considerable country, extending about seven hundred miles in length, and six hundred and eighty in breadth; the situation of it is between forty-six and fifty-seven degrees north latitude, and sixteen and thirty-four degrees east longitude. It is bounded by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary, to the south; by Germany, to the west; Livonia, part of Russia, and the Baltick sea, to the north; and by another part of Russia, to the east. Its name is derived from Polu, a Slavonian word, which implies a country adapted to hunting.

The climate is rather temperate, and the air not excessively cold; yet sometimes its lakes and rivers are so frozen, that coaches and carts pass over them for five or six months together. The soil also is generally fertile, fit for tillage and pasture, and produces a vast quantity of corn and cattle; even enough to feed the populous nation of Holland, who yearly send vast fleets to Dantzick to buy the corn and oxen sent down thither from the several parts of Poland. Lithuania in particular, produces honey, wax, hemp, flax, leather, potashes, salt, woad, salt-petre, vitriol, and quick-silver. With these staple commodities they purchase those of other nations, viz. wines, cloth, stuffs, wrought-silk, tapestry, jewels, fables, martens, tin, steel, iron-ware, aqua-vitæ, brandy, and spices.

The country of Poland in general produces also all kinds of fruits and herbs, and a good breed of horses; so that their cavalry is numerous, and well-mounted. There are vines in many places, whose grapes are grateful to the taste, especially if the summer and harvest be favourable; but the wine is generally very sharp, when drawn off.

In the mountains there are mines of lead, silver, copper, and iron; but the most considerable of all are the salt-mines in Lesser Poland, which are the chief riches of the country, and bring most money into the exchequer: they

work in those mines as the colliers do in our coal-pits. The salt is generally of a bluish colour, but some of it white and transparent. When it is first dug, it has a brackish taste; but, when exposed to the air, it becomes brittle, and more sweet. They have also some veins of Sal-Gemmæ. The woods are well-stored with hares, coney, squirrels, deer, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. The Masovian forests have plenty of elks, wild asses, wild oxen, called Uri, and buffaloes, whose flesh, when powdered, the Poles esteem a great dainty. In the Ukrain there are wild horses also, whose flesh is equally esteemed by the nobility. The wolf, resembling a hart, or the European lynx, called Lupus Cervarius, and by the natives Ris, with spots on its belly and legs, affords the best furs in Poland. The quails in Podolia have green legs: it is said their flesh is unwholesome, and breeds the cramp, if immoderately eaten.

The country in general is plain and flat, rather inclining to marsh lands, so that no considerable woods or mountains are found here, except those that make the frontier to Hungary, which is a craggy ridge of three hundred miles in length, and called the Crapach, or Carpathian mountains. The eastern part of the country, indeed, is full of woods, forests, lakes, marshes, and rivers, which afford a delightful prospect to that part of it which is open.

Its most considerable rivers are the Vistula, the Niefnen or Cromes, the Nieper or Boristhenes, the Niefter or Tyras, and the Bog or Vagus; and the only lake worthy of observation is, the great lake of Gopto, or the White Lake, which, it is affirmed, will dye of a swarthy complexion those who bathe in it. One of the most singular productions of Poland, is the manna, which proceeds from the ash and quicken-tree, and also from the larix, pine, fir, oak, juniper, maple, olive, fig-tree, &c. and flows in July and August from the nervous fibres of the leaves.

With respect to the geographical description of Poland; if considered in its utmost extent, it may be divided into the twelve following districts: I. Poland, properly so called; II. Polish Prussia; III. Lithuania; IV. Samogitia; V. Courland; VI. Warsawia; VII. Polachia; VIII. Polefia; IX. Red Russia; X. Podolia; XI. Vol-

hinia;



POLAND
showing the Claims
of
AUSTRIA RUSSIA PRUSSIA

British Statute Miles.
20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 150
Polish Miles.
5 10 20 30 40

Remarks
Court of Austria's claim
Empire of Russia
King of Prussia

London E. from London.

hinia; XII. Ucrania. Most of these provinces are divided into palatinates: which are again subdivided into bailiwicks, or starosties.

Geographers divide Poland, properly so called, into Upper or Little Poland; and Lower or Great Poland. The first of these hath Great Poland and Warsovia, on the north; Hungary, on the south; Red Russia, on the east; and Silesia, on the west; extending, from east to west about two hundred miles, and from north to south, about a hundred and twenty. It contains many woods, but is fertile in some places, and in general well watered.

There is but one mountain in Little Poland, and that is absurdly called the Bald Mountain, though there is a monastery on the summit of it. This division of Poland comprises the palatinates of Cracow, Lendomit and Lublin; which, together, form the diocese of Cracow, containing one thousand and eighteen churches, among which eleven collegiate are included.

The palatinate of Cracow has Silesia on the west, the palatinate of Lendomit on the east, Hungary on the south, and Siradin on the north. This palatinate contains, besides four districts, three duchies, and one county. The four districts are, 1. Cracovia, subdivided into Xianzen and Proszovia; 2. Lelovia; 3. Biecz; 4. Sandecz. The three duchies are, Olveczin, Zator, and Severia, which belongs to Hungary, and contains thirteen towns. There is a sort of manna in this palatinate, which they gather in May and June, sweep it off the grafs with sieves, together with the dew, and make several dishes of it.

Cracow or Cracovia, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the fixed head residence of the sovereign, is seated in a fertile country, at the conflux of the Vistula and Radawa, in nineteen degrees thirty minutes east longitude, and the fiftieth degree of north latitude. The city contains a great number of convents and churches, and among the latter that of the Virgin Mary, which is the principal. On the west side of it is a suburb, with handsome gardens, and near it is the king's palace, which has the advantage of elegant gardens inclosed with a wall. On the south side of it is the royal castle, seated on a high rock near the Vistula. This large structure is defended by walls, towers, and bastions, and has the appearance of a town; it including the king's palace, the cathedral, and two other churches, with several dwelling-houses.

The cathedral is dedicated to St. Stanislaus, formerly bishop of this see, whom Boleslaus II. killed at the altar with his own hands, because that bishop's admonitions were grown insupportable to him. St. Stanislaus's remains are inclosed in a silver shrine, and masses are continually performed day and night in this church. In the treasury of the cathedral, among other things of great value, are the regalia, on which account it is under the care of the treasurer of the kingdom. Here the kings of Poland are always crowned, and their remains interred. The annual revenue of the bishopric of Cracow amounts to forty thousand dollars. The chapter consists of thirty-six canons, besides other priests, whose revenues are also very considerable.

Near the castle is the suburb of Stradomo, which includes several churches, convents and hospitals: and from thence a bridge over the Vistula leads to the town of Czimierz, which may be considered as the second division of the city of Cracow; it lies to the east of the latter, was built by Casimir the Great, and is enclosed by a wall. The chief edifice in this part of the city is the university, which consists of eleven colleges, to which are subordinate fourteen grammar-schools, dispersed in several parts of the city. The Jews-town joins to Czimierz. To the north of the city lies the suburbs of Kleparz, or Klepardia, which has no wall, but contains several churches, particularly that of St. Florian, which is a very stately edifice, and the bishop's palace.

The city of Cracow is large, and was formerly populous and flourishing; but by the removal of the court, and the many calamities it sustained in both the Swedish wars, has much declined. The citizens have this particular privilege, that no appeal lies from the city council, but to the king only; and his majesty can judge no causes relating either to the city or its suburbs in any other place but in Cracow. The palatine of this city has the power of choosing the council, but not of displacing any member when elected. This city has often been consumed by fire, and in 1707 and 1708 was visited by the pestilence, which swept away several thousands of the inhabitants. In 1655 it was besieged and taken by the Swedes; but in 1657 they were obliged to restore it to the Poles. It was stormed by the Russian army under prince Repnin and general

Apraxin, August 19, 1768. Its citadel was surprized by the confederates the beginning of 1772, and it surrendered to the Austrians a few months afterwards.

There are some valuable salt-mines near this city, which were discovered in 1548. They produce a great annual revenue to the crown, and the proprietors are likewise obliged to make a yearly present to every city in Poland. The salt is of four kinds; and on one side of the mines runs a stream of brackish water, and, on the other side, a fine fresh one.

In this palatinate are also the following towns, viz. 1. Zator, twelve miles south-west from Cracow. 2. Siveria, the capital of the duchy of the same name; it is celebrated for the silver and lead mines in its neighbourhood. 3. Biecz, thirty-three miles south-east of Cracow; sulphur is made here from the surface of the river Rapa. 4. Sandecz, twenty-four miles south of Cracow, celebrated for gold and copper mines in its vicinity; has a collegiate church, and several monasteries. 5. Lelow, on a little river of the same name; near it, are mines of silver and lead. 6. Ofveczin, on the south side of the Sala, and twelve miles from Silesia: it is the thorough-fare from Cracow to Vienna, and has a great trade in salt. 7. Czentochow, on the river Warta, near the confines of Silesia, celebrated for remarkable good beer.

Here is a silver mine twenty-five miles north-west from Cracow, and near the little town of Slacovia. A provincial diet is held in Proszowice, ten miles north of Cracow; and Licuska, twenty miles west of Cracow, is famous for silver and lead mines, and the best bread and beef in Poland. Near Veliska, twenty-five miles east from Cracow, are excellent mines of rock-salt; but the miners, who work under ground, soon become blind from the acrimonious effluvia of it; and there is a very strong fortress at Lubawla, fourteen miles south of Sandecz.

The bishop, palatine, and castellan of Cracow, are the senators of this palatinate. The jurisdiction of the palatine extends not only over the citizens and peasants, but also over the nobility and gentry of the palatinate. The praetor, or mayor of Cracow, is named by the king; but the castle is principally under the command of the palatine, who has ten deputies or burgraves, chosen out of the gentry, by whom, in times of peace and war, a strict guard is kept both night and day.

II. The palatinate of Sendomir, or Sandomir, has that of Cracow, on the west and south-west; Hungary, on the south; Masovia and Great Poland, on the north; and Red Russia, and the palatinate of Lublin, on the east. It is divided into eight districts, and has nine senators, viz. the palatine and castellan of Sendomir, and the castellans of Wislicz, Radom, Zawichost, Zarnow, Malagosch, Polowicz, and Sechow. It abounds with mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, steel, and marble; and derives its name from Sendomir, or Sandomir, which is the capital of this palatinate.

This town is seated on an eminence near the influx of the river San into the Vistula; and its delightful situation rendered it the favourite residence of Casimir the Great, and other kings of Poland. This city is well fortified both by art and nature, and has a college of Jesuits and other orders, with a rich foundation called Collegium Canonicorum. A provincial court of justice is also held here.

In the year 1259 the Tartars and Russians committed terrible ravages in this city, and put the inhabitants to the sword. In 1656 the castle, which stands on a steep rock, was blown up by the Swedes. It is now claimed by the Austrians. Here are two churches much frequented by pilgrims, both which stand in the middle of a forest. This town was dismantled by king Augustus in 1704.

The towns of less note are, 1. Kunow, forty miles north of Sandomir; it has several quarries of marble in it. 2. Schydlowiecz, forty miles north-west of Sandomir; there are great quantities of timber, iron and steel in its neighbourhood. 3. Viasden, a new-built town of good trade. 4. Optatow, fifteen miles north-west of Sendomir; it has several famous religious structures. 5. Radom, the capital of its district, forty-three miles north-west of Sandomir. 6. Ilza, a neat town belonging to the bishop of Cracow, seventy miles to the north-east of that town. 7. Solecia, on the Weisfel, celebrated for its cattle. 8. Bozentin, near the bottom of the bald mountain; there is plenty of iron in its neighbourhood. 9. Kielcz, ten miles west of Bozentin, is famous for mines of copper and lapis lazuli. 10. Chencin, twelve miles east of Kielcz, noted for mines of lead and silver, and quarries of marble. 11. Racow, or Racovia, noted for having been

been formerly a nest for the Socinians and Arians, whose academy there was suppressed about the year 1660. 12. Lagovia, famous for making earthen-ware. 13. Corzin is the capital of its district, and has a castle near the river Vislock. 14. Vislicza, or Wislicz, a city and castellany, watered by the Nida, stands on a rock, fifty-one miles east of Sandomir; there are many serpents and insects in the adjacent country.

III. Lublin palatinate hath that of Sendomir, to the north-east; Padlaetria, to the west; and Lithuania, to the east. The whole palatinate, independent of the cottages of the peasants, contains near two thousand noblemens and gentlemens seats. It is governed by four principal persons, viz. the palatinate, the castellan, and two senators. The Weiffel and Viepers are the chief rivers of this palatinate.

Lublin, in the palatinate of the same name, is surrounded by a wall and ditch; but though it is not large, it is a place of good trade. It has a castle built on a high rock, and stands in a very pleasant and fertile country. It has several churches and convents, a college of Jesuits, and a great number of Jews live in the suburbs; they have there a very spacious synagogue. In this city are held three annual fairs, each of which lasts a month, and these are frequented by a multitude of German, Greek, Armenian, Russian, Turkish, and Arabian traders and merchants. The chief tribunal for Little Poland is held in this city, besides the provincial diet and a court of judicature. In 1240 this city was set on fire by the Tartars, after which it continued for a long time in the possession of the Russians. It also suffered much by fire in 1447 and 1606, and in 1656 was reduced to ashes by the Swedes. It suffered the same fate from the Russians in 1768.

Among the rocks, near the Weiffel is the large town of Casimir, built of timber; it is about twenty-six miles distant from Lublin. Here are a beautiful palace and extensive gardens belonging to the archbishop of Gnesna. In this town Charles XII. of Sweden caused general Patkul to be broke alive upon the wheel. The Weiffel sometimes overflows, and lays above half the town under water.

Twenty-eight miles south of Lublin stands Urzendow, which is a considerable town, built of timber. The town of Lulow, likewise built of wood, is about fifty-six miles from Lublin, in a plain: it has a considerable jurisdiction, and is defended by bogs and palisadoes.

Lower or Great Poland is bounded, on the north, by Pomerania and Polish Prussia; on the south, by Little Poland; on the west, by Silesia and Brandenburg; and, on the east, by Massovia. It is near two-hundred miles in length, and about one hundred in breadth. Though called Great Poland, it is rather smaller than Little Poland, for it did not receive the appellation of Great from its extent, but from having been first settled into a kingdom by Lechus the Great, by whom the Polish monarchy was originally founded.

This is, in general, a level champaign country, has pleasant rivers, lakes, and ponds, and is well furnished with all manner of fish and fowl. The most considerable of its rivers is, the Warta, which passes through great part of it. Its hills abound with sheep, and other cattle; and its vallies with corn.

The first subdivision of this country, we shall take notice of, is Posnania, which is bounded on the west by Silesia and Brandenburg; on the north, by Pomerania; on the east, by Pomerelia; and on the south, by the palatinate of Kalisch and Silesia.

The archbishop of Gnesna, the bishop, palatine, and castellan, of Posnania; and six other castellans are sectors of this palatinate. There are several other officers in this palatinate, both civil and military. The starostas, or governors of cities, have some of them jurisdiction, others none; as it is, likewise, all over the kingdom. Some of its towns are walled, but the houses, in general, are of timber, except the public edifices, which are of stone or brick.

Its capital city, of the same name, stands in a plain, amongst several little hills, by the river Varta, or Warta, twenty-eight miles west of Gnesna, forty north of Wratistlaw, forty-three north west of Kalisch, one hundred and thirty-five south of Dantzick, and one hundred and forty-three west of Warsaw. It is thought to be inferior to no city of Poland, except Cracow. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Gnesna; and is defended by a good castle, a double wall, and a deep ditch. It is famous for its trade, is well-built, and has a cathedral, the bishop's palace, and an university, in its suburbs, which are large, and encompassed by a morass, and a deep lake, but incom-

moded, sometimes, by the overflowing of the river. The Jesuits have a fine college and monastery in the city, in the former of which they have many scholars. The inhabitants make as handsome a figure in their houses and dress, as any where in Poland; and their starosta, or chief magistrate, who is chosen annually out of the echevins, or aldermen, is dignified with the title of general of Great Poland. Most of them are papists, but here are many Jews, who have greater privileges than the citizens. In 1704, the Saxons laid siege to it, but were soon obliged to raise it, by the approach of the Swedes. In 1716, the Swedes attacked the Saxons here, contrary to a suspension of arms, and made them prisoners of war in the castle. The public buildings are generally of free stone, of which the most considerable is the castle, that stands on a small eminence, between the rivers Warta and Proсна; but its most stately edifices are on the other side of the Warta, in the suburbs. The suburb is commonly called Valisovi, and built so strong, that like the town it is able to withstand a siege. There are three very famous fairs kept in this city, much resorted to by the German traders and gentry. The first is kept about the beginning of Lent, and lasts a month; the second and third at Midsummer and Michaelmas, each of which continues five weeks. In St. Magdalen's, which is the principal church of the city, they shew the tomb of the duke Miecslaus, who introduced christianity into Poland. Here are several other churches, besides monasteries; the streets are spacious, and its town-house is a large building, of fine architecture.

The other towns of note are, 1. Koson, about thirty-three miles south west of Posnania. 2. Miedzyecze, on the frontiers of Silesia, about sixty miles south east of Posnania. 3. Slupeza, on the Warta, about thirty miles south east of Posnania. 4. Lissa, thirty-three miles north-west of Posnania; it was plundered and burnt by the Russians in 1707, so that of three thousand houses, only seven were left standing. 5. Fraustad, on the frontiers of Silesia, ten miles south west of Lissa; it is remarkable for the victory obtained near it over the Saxons by the Swedes, which proved fatal to king Augustus.

IV. The palatinate of Kalisch, or Kalis, lies along the river Warta, between the palatinate of Posnania on the west, Siradia on the south, Sendomir on the south-east, and Lencisca and Cujavia on the east and north-east. Its senators are five, viz. the palatine and castellan of Kalisch, and the castellans of Land, Naklo, and Kamin. It has its name from the city of Kalisch, mentioned by Ptolemy, on the river Proсна, which falls, a little lower, into the Warta, twenty miles east of Silesia, and north of Siradia, thirty-seven south of Gnesna, a hundred and thirty-three west of Warsaw and north-west of Cracow. It lies among marshes, and is fortified only with a brick wall, and low towers. Here are the ruins of a strong castle which was destroyed by the Teutonic knights. It has a magnificent college of Jesuits, and some religious houses. It was taken, and ill-treated, by the Swedes, during the wars of the last century. The Saxons and Poles defeated the Swedes near this place, in October 1706, just as a treaty had been signed, whereby king Augustus renounced the crown to king Stanislaus, his electorate of Saxony being then over-run by the Swedes, and no other way left him to relieve it. But the chief city of this palatinate is Gnesna, called Gnisen by the Germans, which is the capital of the Lower Poland, and was formerly the metropolis of the whole kingdom, and seat of the king. It stands in the middle of the palatinate, in a plain, between hills and lakes, thirty-seven miles north of Kalisch and east of Posnan, forty-six south-west of Thorn, ninety-five north of Breslaw, one hundred and eighteen south of Dantzick, a hundred and twenty-one north-west of Warsaw, and a hundred and fifty-five north-west of Cracow. It was built, as is generally reported, by king Lechus I. founder of this monarchy, and called Gnesna, from an eagle's nest found there, which, in the Polish language, is called Gnesiad. The kings of Poland were crowned, and the regalia kept here, till 1320, when they were removed to Cracow. It suffered very much by a dreadful fire, in 1613, and has been declining ever since; so that it is now only considerable for being the see of an archbishop, who is primate of all Poland, legate of the Holy See, and, in case of the king's death, regent till a new king be chosen, whom, also, he claims the right of declaring and crowning. He signs himself "Legatus natus, & regni Poloniae primus, & primus princeps." He can reverse all proceedings in any of the bishop's courts, and it is death to draw a sword in his presence. A golden cross is carried before him when he goes to the diet, or to the king; and when

he sits, his chaplain holds it behind his chair. His marshal, who is a senator, carries a staff before his coach, and salutes none with it but the king. He visits no ambassadors, though they visit him. During the interregnum, he may coin money in his own name; the revenues of the crown belonging to him, and he has then the same officers with the king; but at all times he has drums beating, and trumpets sounding, within and without, before he sits down to table; and he may visit the king when he pleases. The canons must all be of noble birth and descent.

In the cathedral there is a vast treasure of gold, silver, and curious enamelled vessels, left to it by Sigismund III. other kings, and some archbishops. The tomb of one of the archbishops is cased with silver, and the gates are of Corinthian brass, curiously wrought.

III. To the north and south of the Warta is situated the palatinate of Siradia, and contains, 1. Siradia, the capital town, which is small, but populous, and has a castle to defend it. 2. Wielun, the seat of the starosta, castellan, and provincial diet. 3. Petrikow, a tolerable well-built town; and at present one of the great tribunals of the kingdom, for determining differences among the nobility, and appeals from inferior courts, assembles in this town; as does also the synod of the clergy, and a provincial court.

IV. Leneicia is situated east from Kalisch and Siradia, and has little Poland, towards the south. It is divided into three districts, and hath five senators, viz. the palatine and castellan of Leneicia, and the other castellans.

Leneicia, the principal town of this palatinate, is eighty miles west of Warsaw, and a hundred and thirty miles north of Cracow. It is surrounded by a brick wall and a ditch, defended by a castle, situated on a rock; has a great annual fair, and is the seat of one of the diets. 2. Piontkum, situated on the Warta, is ten miles east from the above-mentioned town.

V. Rava palatinate lies east from that of Leneicia, and hath four senators, viz. the castellan of Sochaczow, the castellan of Gostinin; the castellan of Rava, and the palatine of Rava.

The town of Rava, which is the capital of this palatinate, stands on a river of the same name, upwards of forty miles to the south-west of Warsaw. It is situated in the midst of a plain, is built of wood, tolerably populous, and defended by a castle, which is at once the depository of some of the crown revenues, and a state prison. The castle, which is flanked with four towers, and surrounded with a broad ditch full of water, is a large stone building. The other towns of less note are, 1. Louitz, on the river Rava, about fourteen miles from the above town. It hath a castle surrounded by the river; is adorned with a stately church, and the palace of the archbishop of Gnesna. 2. Volhora is a populous town, where is a noble palace belonging to the bishop of Cujavia.

VI. Brezesty palatinate lies to the north of Leneicia, is fertile, sends five members to the diet, and hath its name from a little town sixty miles to the east of Gnesna. It lies on a causeway among marshes, and is built of brick and wood. Its towns are, 1. Cruswick, thirty miles west of Brezesty; there is a brick castle in the middle of it; and in the suburbs stands the church of St. Peter, built with free-stone, together with a college of twenty-four canons. 2. Radziew is situated on a lake, twenty-eight miles north-west of Brezesty; and the houses in general are built of timber; hence it is subject to conflagrations, like many other towns of Poland.

VII. Uladislau, in Latin Uladislavia, is a palatinate, whose capital city, of the same name, is built among marshes, near the Weiffel, in the midway between Plozko and Thorn, fourteen miles north-east of Brezesty, twenty south-east of Thorn, and seventy-five north-west of Warsaw. It is the see of the bishop of Cujavia and Pomerania, suffragan of Gnesna, who always crowns the king, in case of the death, indisposition, or obstinacy, of the primate. The cathedral is an ancient Gothick structure, but rich in plate, ornaments, and reliicks; and encompassed with the houses of the canons and prebendaries, and a large free-school. The chief ornament of the place is, the bishop's stately palace, built by Matthias Golanciew, who was forty-two years bishop of this see, and founded the church of St. Vital the martyr. The houses are generally of brick, as also the castle on the Weiffel, which is well fortified. Though the adjacent soil is marshy, and so scarce of fuel, that the inhabitants suffer very much for want of it; yet it is fruitful in corn, and sends great quantities to Dantzick, for exportation.

VIII. The palatinate of Inowlocz, or. Inowladislaw,

extends from the lake of Goplo, and the city of Cruswick, to the Weiffel and the confines of Pomerania: it has Prussia on the north, the Weiffel on the east, Kalisch on the south, and lies north-west from Brezesty. It is divided into these territories, and sends four castellans to the diet, besides the palatine. The chief town of the same name, is on the river Norez, thirty-eight miles west of Uladislaw: it is small, but defended by a strong castle. 2. Bydgosz, is a walled town, noted for a trade in salmon: it is situated in a plain, on the river Barde, by which goods are brought up to it from the Weiffel, particularly from Uladislaw, from which it is twenty four miles distant.

IX. Dobrin, by some made a distinct palatinate of the province of Massovia, and by others a territory belonging to that of Brezesty, lies on the east of Weiffel, between Cujavia and Prussia; abounds with fruit and fish, was formerly the occasion of many quarrels between the Teutonic knights, Prussia, and Poland, and is divided into three districts. Its senators are, the three castellans of Dobrin, Ripin, and Sloufk.

On a rock near the Weiffel, over-against Uladislaw, stands the town of Dobrin, built of timber. It had formerly a strong castle, which the Teutonic knights demolished.

X. On the west side of the country is Plozko, or Ploskow, by some also reckoned a palatinate of Massovia, from which it lies rather to the east between the Weiffel and Ducal Prussia. It is divided into four districts; and its senators are, the bishop, palatine, and castellan of Ploskow.

Its chief town, of the same name, stands on a high bank of the Weiffel, from whence there is a prospect of a pleasant and fruitful country. It is fifteen miles south of Dobrin, near thirty east of Brezesty, forty-four south-east of Thorn, forty north-east of Leneicia, and fifty north-west of Warsaw. It has been a bishop's see a long time, is very populous, has a good trade by its river, and is defended by a castle. It has a cathedral with other churches and monasteries, well endowed, especially that of the Benedictines, in the suburbs; where, among other relics, they keep the head of St. Sigismund, given by Sigismund III. in a gold shrine.

SECT. II.

Containing a Description of POLISH PRUSSIA, its Boundaries, Extent, Produce, &c. their Religion, Civil and Political Governments; several Divisions of the Country, principal Towns, &c.

POLISH Prussia hath been distinguished by the appellation, of royal Prussia, and has been added to the general province of Great Poland, though it is a very different country, inhabited by a different people, who have their peculiar laws and privileges; and therefore deserves to be separately considered. It is bounded on the north by part of Pomerania and the Baltic sea; on the east, by the kingdom of Prussia; on the south, by Great Poland; and on the west, by Great Poland and Pomerania. It is far inferior in extent to the kingdom of Prussia, it being only about sixty miles in length, and fifty-one in its greatest breadth; but the latter does not exceed eighteen miles in some places.

This country is diversified with mountains, woods, and lakes; but in the south part there is little pasture ground, and consequently few cattle. The fisheries are of great advantage to this country, which also yields a vast quantity of honey and wax.

The woods abound with wild boars, roe-bucks, and wild fowl, and a good deal of lime is also burnt in some parts of the country.

Here are those remarkable heaths of Skal, Masura, Nicholait, and the desert of Iohannisberg, which is four German miles in breadth, and four in length.

The inhabitants consist partly of Poles, and partly of Germans. The reformation was introduced here early in the sixteenth century, and in a few years the professors of the Lutheran religion increased so fast, that their number in the principal cities and towns far exceeded that of the papists, and they had almost as great a superiority in the smaller towns and villages. But succeeding times have introduced considerable alterations. The kings of Poland have, indeed, allowed the inhabitants the free exercise of the Lutheran religion in the cities of Prussia; but there are at present only a few towns in which the Lutherans have churches, and in other towns they have been compelled

pelled to give them up to the papists. Besides, the protestants are continually oppressed, and promises of preferment and other means are too successfully employed, in order to seduce the Prussian nobility from the Lutheran church to the Romish.

As we hinted above, Polish Prussia is a distinct political body or state, that hath nothing in common with Poland, except its having the same sovereign, and being connected with that crown by a perpetual alliance. For when the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of king Casimir IV. in 1466, it was expressly stipulated, that the duchy of Prussia should have nothing to do with the republic of Poland; but that the king alone should personally order and determine all matters relating to the former; and for that purpose should come among them, and summon general diets. Hence this state enjoys the same right as Poland and Lithuania, of voting at the election of a king, who after his coronation is obliged to swear, that he will maintain the Prussians in their rights and privileges; and when this is done, they pay homage to the new sovereign in the usual manner.

With respect to matters of a public nature, the king can determine nothing without the concurrence of the states, who are divided into spiritual and temporal members, the latter consisting of nobles and burghers. Of these the senate is at present composed. This council consists, first, of the bishops of Ermland and Culm. The former is the president and chief among the nobility, and is not under any subordination to the archbishop of Gnesna; but holds immediately of the pope. His diocese, in which he has the supreme authority both in civil and ecclesiastical causes, is of a very large extent. Its revenues are divided into three parts, one of which belongs to the chapter; but the other two, which are computed at sixty-four thousand dollars, are assigned for the episcopal table.

The diocese of the bishop of Culm is not near so extensive, and consequently the revenue is much inferior to that of the bishop of Ermland. The bishop of Culm is a suffragan to the archbishop of Ermland. The bishop of Gnesna, and the king absolutely dispose of that bishopric without calling a chapter. The other members of the council are three palatines, who are of equal dignity with those of Poland; three castellans, who are not invested with any particular office or employment, but on a general summons of the nobility may be looked upon as the lieutenants of the palatinates; three vice-treasurers, who have only a bare title; but as they are counsellors of state, they take place of the rest of the nobility; two counsellors from each of the three great cities, Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing; and each of these representatives has a vote in the senate.

According to the laws of the country, these state counsellors ought to be native Prussians; but this is seldom the case. They are nominated by the king of Poland, and take a particular oath at their admission. The bishop of Ermland sits as president in the Prussian diet; but, in his absence, his place is supplied by the principal persons among the nobility who are present. These members are styled the two states of the duchy of Prussia, and royal counsellors: they may likewise be termed the superior states, to distinguish them from the inferior, composed of the lower nobility, and the deputies of the small towns. King Casimir IV. engaged for himself and successors, not to determine any affair of consequence without the previous concurrence of the states of Prussia. Hence sprung the origin of the Prussian diets, which before had no connection with those of Poland. But in 1569, part of the senate or council of Prussia was united with the senate of Poland, and the states of the former were compelled to appear at the general diet of the kingdom. The political constitution of Prussia has been much changed from that time; but it still enjoys particular rights and privileges, and is not entirely interwoven with that of Poland.

After the general Prussian diet is summoned (which is alternately held at Marienburgh and Graudenz,) the king specifies the time of holding the lesser diets, where the representatives of the former are chosen, and receive their instructions. These provincial diets are held in every palatinate, and the happy conclusion of them indicates the prosperous issue of the general diet; for if only one of these assemblies rises abruptly, the general diet is seldom expected to assemble. The numbers of representatives for every palatinate is not fixed, but they have lately been more numerous than heretofore. During the session of the diet, their expences are defrayed; and the instructions given to the members are in the Polish tongue.

Besides their own general diet, the Prussians assist at that of Poland: though they do not agree to the taxes imposed on them in the Polish diet, but only in their own general one. Formerly the Prussians had their own coin, which is now reduced to the standard of the Polish money. But the three principal cities of Prussia have still the privilege of coining gold and silver pieces, impressed with the king's head on one side, and their respective arms on the reverse; which pass as the current money of Prussia, after receiving the royal sanction. Here are several other public officers, besides the counsellors of state, such as the treasurer, who is the principal, and the only one who has an annual salary; the sword-bearer, who has only the bare title; the standard-bearer, who bears the standard of the province, when all the nobility take the field; and seven judges, with their attendants and clerks.

The towns of Prussia are comprised in the three celebrated ones of Dantzick, Thorn, and Elbing, and twenty-seven royal towns, besides those that belong to the bishop of Ermland and Culm. An association was formed among the small towns, under the government of the knights of the Teutonic order. By this union, which still continues, they are to act jointly in behalf of their common privileges; to consult their interest as a community in their particular assemblies; and to recommend their common concerns, in the general diet of Prussia, to the representatives of the great cities. Marienburgh, which is the most considerable among these towns, has the directory, and this with Graudenz, Dirschau, Stargard, and Konitz, are called the plenipotentiary towns; for, besides their own affairs, these are charged with those of all the other towns, which they lay before the directory, and the latter represent them to the deputies of the great cities. These small towns are at present far from being in a flourishing condition. An appeal lies from the sentences of their magistrates to the starostas, and also to the king from the latter.

There are four provinces or palatinates of Polish Prussia. That of Pomerelia, or Little Pomerania, was antiently a part of the duchy of Pomerania; but at last fell under the dominion of Poland. This palatinate contains five circles, and has four provincial judges. The most remarkable places in it are the following, viz.

The celebrated and commercial city and fortress of Dantzick, called by the Poles Gdantzck, situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltick, in fifty three degrees, thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and in eighteen degrees thirty-five minutes east longitude. The small rivers called the Radaune and the Motlau run through the city; the latter divided into two channels, which run between the Old and New Town, and afterwards unite again below the city, and, with the Radaune, fall into the Vistula.

This is a large, beautiful, and populous city, built after the antient manner of the Hanse-towns. The houses are generally five stories high, which make the streets appear the narrower, especially as the entrance into the houses is by four or five stone steps, and a balcony, which make a projection of ten or twelve feet. These houses are kept clean after the manner of the Dutch, though with less nicety. Many of the streets are planted with chestnut-trees about thirty feet high, which afford an agreeable shelter from the heat of the sun.

There is a beautiful harbour belonging to this city; and the inhabitants who are remarkably civil and obliging to strangers, carry on a considerable trade, especially in corn. The ships belonging to this port are very numerous, and the privileges of this city are very valuable. As it is one of the three great cities, it sends representatives to the Prussian senate or council of state, who have likewise a seat in the general diet of Poland, and vote at the election of a king. The Dantzickers have also the privilege of gathering amber, coining money, &c.

Here are twelve Lutheran churches, exclusive of those in the house of correction and in the alms-houses, two Calvinistical churches, one popish church, and a college of Jesuits. The cathedral, which is a large Lutheran church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is the most magnificent, and the principal church in Dantzick. Mr. Hanway observes, that this is an antient structure that has not been much changed by the establishment of the protestant religion in this city: for it was agreed by treaties to have the crucifixes, images, and pictures, as in the times of popery. They shew a very curious painting on wood, of the resurrection, by Van Eyck. There is a Lutheran academy in the Grey Friars convent, in which are seven professors, and one teacher of the Polish language. In this convent is also

also the city library. The other public buildings are the exchange, the council houses in the Old and New Town, the public weigh-house, the arsenal, which contains a good collection of arms, but many of them are old and useless; they have a hundred and fifty large brass cannon, some of which are said to weigh fifteen thousand pounds. They have also a fine mill erected on the river Radaune, which has eighteen wheels, is the largest in all the city, and is said to have produced to the proprietors a ducat every hour.

Dantzick was anciently the principal of the Hanse-towns, and the first that entered into the Hanseatic association. The German is almost the only language spoken here, the inhabitants being little used to the Polish. The city has its own garrison; and the fortifications make a good appearance, especially towards the south and west; those parts of the town being surrounded with eminences, some of which rise higher than the towers of the city itself.

In the year 1752, one thousand two hundred and eighty-eight Polish vessels, small and great, from the Vistula, and one thousand and fourteen ships from the sea, arrived in this port, and fifty-eight thousand and sixty bushels of corn were brought into this city for exportation. Indeed the most considerable branch of the trade of Dantzick is that of corn, which is brought by the Poles in large barks of about fifty tons burden down the Vistula. In plentiful years these barks annually amount to about sixteen hundred. As these cargoes are often exposed to the weather, it is customary to spread their sails on the banks of the river, and to dry their corn upon them. They also export bees wax to the annual amount of near a thousand schippounds; besides narrow linens, sacking, pot-ash, pearl-ash, pipe-staves, oak-plank, &c.

We learn from antient records, that Dantzick was a large commercial city so early as the year 997. The New Town was founded by the Teutonic knights in the year 1311, and was first encompassed with a wall and moat in 1343. Dantzick shook off the yoke of those knights in 1454, and the inhabitants, upon certain conditions, submitted to Casimir, king of Poland, who, among other privileges, granted them the right of coining their own money. Afterwards they refused to do homage to Stephen, king of Poland, without the previous confirmation of their rights and privileges; upon which the city was put under the ban, and besieged by that prince; but the affair was accommodated, and on their publicly acknowledging their error, and paying a large fine, the king received them into favour, confirmed their privileges, and granted them the free exercise of the Lutheran religion. In 1734, Stanislaus, king of Poland, took refuge here, which occasioned a hot siege and bombardment from the Russians and Saxons; but Stanislaus making his escape, Augustus III. was acknowledged as rightful sovereign, by the Dantzickers.

The king of Prussia exempted this city, as well as that of Thorn, from those claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; notwithstanding which, his Prussian majesty seized on the territories belonging to Dantzick, under the pretence of their having been formerly part of Polish Prussia. He then proceeded to possess himself of the port duties belonging to that city, and erected a custom-house in the harbour, where he laid insupportable arbitrary duties upon goods exported or imported. Although the English merchants had in right of treaties several immunities at Dantzick, these could not protect them from the rapacity and extortion of this monarch, who laid such heavy taxes on the principal articles of commerce, as amounted nearly to a prohibition of them; and likewise established companies to whom he granted an exclusive right of trading in certain articles. To complete the system of oppression, no person could go in or out of the town, not excepting the ladies, without being searched in the strictest manner.

History will hardly furnish a more striking instance of the futility, if not of the absurdity of treaties, so far as they are considered as guarantees or acts of security, than the fate of Dantzick. Few cities ever existed, and it is probable that none do at present, that have been comprehended in so many general and particular treaties, whose rites and liberties have been so frequently secured, and guaranteed by so many great powers, and by such a long and regular succession of public acts, as that of Dantzick has been. Nor have the commercial powers of Europe so often armed in the defence or support of any other. The city is in the diocese of Cujavia, and the inhabitants pay the Popish bishop all the regard consistent with the difference of their religion, and the privileges and immunities of the city.

Without the walls of Dantzick lie the following places within its jurisdiction, viz. 1. The Dantziger, Werder, or Island, which is surrounded by the Vistula, the Motlau, and the morasses caused by these rivers, and contains about fourteen hundred hides of lands, and about thirty-three villages. 2. The Frische Nehrung; which is a long narrow slip of land, extending between the sea and the harbour. It contains five villages that have churches; but the most remarkable place on this island is a fort called Munde, which is very strong, and has a church and a commodious harbour. And, 3. about a German mile from Dantzick is Oliva, a celebrated convent, that has been frequently consumed by fire. It is at present inhabited by about fifty Cistercian monks. Near the entrance of the church is a marble table in the wall, in commemoration of the treaty of Oliva concluded in this monastery between the Poles and Swedes in 1660. The dispensary belonging the convent is elegant and well contrived. This monastery has the privilege of gathering amber on the sea coast. Round this structure a pretty village has been gradually built. There are in the district belonging to Dantzick, several other small towns.

The province of Culmerland, or the palatinate of Culm, has a palatine, who is the first of those belonging to Prussia, a castellan, a vice-treasurer, a sword-bearer, a judge, and eight starosties.

The principal places in this palatinate are, 1. Culm, of Chelmno, the capital of the province, which stands on an eminence on the banks of the Vistula, in fifty-three degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees twenty minutes east longitude. This city was founded in 1239, and bequeathed by one of the dukes of Massovia to the knights of the Teutonic order. The inhabitants afterwards withdrew themselves from their obedience, and submitted to Poland. While the Teutonic knights had the sovereignty of Culm, the high tribunal of Prussia was held in this city, and the Culmean law became in such reputation, that there were few places in Prussia or Massovia, where it was not received. The city is at present subject to the bishop. The bishopric of Culm is the most antient see in Polish Prussia, and the college or chapter consists of only four canons, who are chosen by the bishop, and the rest of the chapter. Culm is a large city, though but thinly inhabited, and was formerly one of the Hanse towns.

2. Thorn, the chief of the three great cities of Polish Prussia, stands on the Vistula, seventy-two miles south of Dantzick, in fifty-two degrees forty-six minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees fifteen minutes east longitude. This city was founded by Herman Balck, first grand master of the Teutonic order, who, in 1231, built the castle of Thorn, and in the following year laid the foundation of the town; but in 1235, the building of it was discontinued on account of its inconvenient situation, and the city was built about four miles and a half up the river, where it now stands. It is supposed to have been called Thorn, because the knights, by building it, open to themselves a thor, or door, into Russia. Thus the seal of the city represents a gate thrown open. Thorn soon after its being built became distinguished above the other towns of Prussia by its enjoying several valuable privileges; but when the Teutonic knights made a very ill use of their power throughout all Prussia, this city was the first that formed the noble scheme of shaking off their oppressive yoke.

The inhabitants having concerted an agreement with the other towns in the year 1454, made themselves masters of the castle, and demolished it; and having expelled the Teutonic knights by force of arms, the confederates put themselves under the protection of Casimir the Great, king of Poland; but their rights, privileges, and immunities were to remain entire. They were to honour his Polish majesty as their sovereign; but without any further connection with Poland than a close harmony and alliance, by which they engaged to have the same allies and enemies on all occasions, and reciprocally to promote each other's welfare and prosperity.

Three cities had the following privileges granted them in common: they were declared free, and were to be governed by their own magistrates, consisting of the council, the chief persons of which are the burgrave and president, the judges, and the representatives of the burghers. The members of the council were to be stiled noble; they were allowed to hold a supreme court of judicature, and in criminal cases to punish capitally even those who were not inhabitants of the city, if they were taken in the fact; to have their own garrison; to coin money, and to have

have their law-suits decided only in Prussia. They were to pay no other customs in Poland but those usually demanded at the first barrier on the frontiers. Lastly, they were to be members of the state-council of Polish Prussia, and to have a seat and vote in the Polish diet, and at the election of a king. The third jubilee of this event was commemorated with great rejoicings in the schools of all the three great cities in February, when medals were struck on the occasion in the cities of Thorn and Dantzick.

The records of Polish Prussia are kept in the city of Thorn, which has ten gates, and is divided into the Old and New town, each of which had formerly its respective council, magistracy, and police; but in 1453, they were incorporated into one city. They are, however, separated by a wall and moat within the town, but on the outside are defended in common by a double wall and moats. This is esteemed the handsomest city in Polish Prussia, its streets being broad and regular, and for the most part planted with rows of trees: the houses are also remarkable for their elegant appearance and cleanliness.

The wooden bridge over the Vistula in this city may be justly esteemed the longest, the most extraordinary and expensive bridge in Europe, the city being obliged to expend great sums in keeping it in repair. It properly consists of two bridges, the island of Bazar dividing it in the middle. That part of it next to Thorn is called the German bridge, and the channel over which it lies is esteemed the German Vistula; but the other part is distinguished by the name of the Polish bridge, it lying over the channel called the Polish Vistula. As the river runs considerably wider, the bridge must necessarily be lengthened, so that at present it takes up half an hour to walk over it from one bank of the river to the other. It is also the most singular on account of the quicksand into which the piles are driven, which occasions the whole bridge to shake and totter whenever any carriage or horses are upon it, or even when it is passed by a considerable number of foot-passengers: a stranger who is unacquainted with its construction, apprehends himself in great danger in passing over it. The ice on the Vistula, which is frequently two or three feet thick, and the rapidity of the current, carry away every year one-third of it. Hence some idea may be formed of the vast expence the annual repairs amount to; for the Poles pay no part of that, notwithstanding the heavy loads they bring over it.

The reformation was very early embraced by the inhabitants of this city, which has its own garrison, consisting of only one company. This city found as little security from the king of Prussia's declaration in 1772, as that of Dantzick. Its territories and revenues were seized upon, custom and excise-offices erected at their gates, and heavy exactions demanded even upon the necessities of life. Thus blockaded and plundered, they were declared free; but at the same time were summoned to do homage to the king of Prussia for all the lands they possessed without the walls. In these circumstances, with force and famine to encounter, the magistrates and citizens behaved with wonderful resolution and firmness. They returned for answer, that they had already paid homage and sworn allegiance to one sovereign; and that they could neither renounce their allegiance, nor break their oaths, upon any account or consideration whatsoever; in which laudable resolution they have still persevered.

3. The town of Graudenz, formerly called Grodee, and in the Polish language Graudzianz, makes a handsome appearance, being pleasantly situated on an island formed by the river Ossa, which here flows through the two channels into the Vistula. The Prussian diet is held alternately in this town and at Marienburg.

The præfecture of Marienburg comes next under our consideration. Here is a palatine, a vice-treasurer, and a provincial judge. This palatinate contains three warders. A warder is a fen or morass, surrounded with water, and improved for tillage and habitation. They produce plenty of grass and corn, but have seldom either woods or hills. That called the wood of Elbing is the most considerable in this district. In many parts the fuel is turf, straw, and stubble; and even where there are woods, they afford very little game, except hares, woodcocks, and other wild fowl, but harbour very fierce wolves. The fresh water in these warders is very good; the air is tolerably healthful; a great number of cattle are bred here, and the horses are much esteemed.

The inhabitants of the warders have from time immemorial been free peasants, and are stiled the royal vassals and warderers. Those, however, who are subject to the jurisdiction of the cities, are under greater restrictions than

the royal peasants who live in the Marienburg warders. They speak the German and Polish languages, and are for the most part Lutherans or Papists: here are also a considerable number of Mennonites (a sort of baptists), and some Calvinists.

Marienburg and Elbing are the principal places in this præfecture. The former of these is a well-built town, in fifty-four degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and nineteen degrees twelve minutes east longitude. It stands on an eminence near the river Nogat, in a pleasant and fertile country.

The city of Elbing was built in 1239: it stands on a river of the same name, in fifty-four degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and nineteen degrees fifteen minutes east longitude. It is a handsome large city, fortified after the antient manner, and carries on a considerable trade. Between the Old town and the suburbs, where the storehouses of the merchants are erected, runs the river Elbing; and the Old town is divided from the New by a wall and moat. The houses are high, narrow in front, and built in the old taste, much like those at Dantzick. The streets are very narrow, occasioned by the balconies that project into them, and before them are receptacles for all the filth and dirt thrown out of the houses.

Elbing is one of the Hanse-towns; and as it is inhabited by a colony from Lubeck, it is governed by the laws of that city; but the burghers have their particular rights and privileges. Here are ten churches, in which divine service is performed. That of St. Nicholas, which is the largest and handsomest church in Prussia, was given up to the Papists in 1616. The castle, which was built in 1237, was demolished by the burghers in 1454. The fortifications towards the Warder are very slight, but on the opposite side they are in a much better condition; yet it is esteemed one of the strongest towns in Polish Prussia. Some companies of the crown-army of Poland are cantoned in this town; but the burghers keep guard at the gates, and there is a Prussian garrison in the suburbs.

With respect to ecclesiastical matters, this city is under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Ermeland, as far as is consistent with the difference of religion, and without prejudice to the rights and privileges of the city; but in civil affairs it is only subject to the king.

In 1703, Elbing fell into the possession of the Swedes, who laid it under contribution; but the Russians took it from them by storm. It was formerly mortgaged to the elector of Brandenburg, as a security for the payment of four hundred thousand rix-dollars; but as the elector did not receive the sum stipulated, the king of Prussia, in virtue of the above agreement, took possession of the district belonging to the city.

The province of Ermeland is entirely surrounded by the kingdom of Prussia. This province belongs to no palatinate, but is entirely subject to the bishop and chapter; so that neither the nobility nor the other inhabitants of Ermeland can appeal to any other judicature. Two thirds of this province belong to the bishop, and the remaining third part to the chapter. Their subjects have free recourse to the same courts of judicature as the rest of the Prussians; but they have some particular laws to themselves. They have also a provincial diet, to which the nobility, burghers, country judges, and also the freemen, are summoned. Though the Ermelanders do not assist at the Prussian diets, the bishop is always present, and proposes whatever is debated concerning his diocese, particularly in relation to the taxes, according as they have been agreed upon in a provincial meeting held for that purpose, where the Ermelanders generally concur in opinion with the Prussian states, and their own bishop.

The following are the most considerable places in Ermeland, viz. 1. Braunsberg, a pretty large trading town, situated on the Passarge, at a small distance from its mouth, in fifty-four degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and twenty degrees five minutes east longitude. It was built in 1255, and received its name from Bruno, bishop of Prague. It is divided into the Old and New town, and is very populous. The celebrated college of the Jesuits in this town was formerly a Franciscan convent. Here is also a convent for nuns. The cathedral has sixteen prebends: it is now under the jurisdiction of the bishop.

In the beautiful town of Heilsburg, on the Alle, stands an elegant seat belonging to the bishop of Ermeland. There is a college of Jesuits in the town. It is said to have been built in 1244, and was destroyed by fire in 1531. Charles II. king of Sweden, had his head-quarters here in 1703.

Kessel is an elegant little town with a castle, has a college of

of jesuits, to which the church of the Holy Linden-tree in Brandenburg Prussia belongs. This town carries on a good trade, and is well supplied with provisions.

Besides the above-mentioned, here is 1. the small town of Putzig, with a strong castle. 2. Dirfchon, a small but strong town on the Vistula, where a provincial court of judicature is held. 3. Schoeneck, with a castle, on the river Ters. 4. Stargard, a small town on the same. 5. Meve, a town with a castle at the confluence of the Ters and Vistula. 6. Munde, or Weisselmunde, a strong fortress at the mouth of that branch of the Weiffel which runs by Dantzick, and can hinder the entrance of ships. 6. Pantfko, on a gulf of the same name, eighteen miles north-west of Dantzick.

S E C T. III.

Describing the several Countries, Provinces, and Duchies of LITHUANIA, SAMOGITIA, COURLAND, WARSOVIA, PALACHIA, POLERIA, RED RUSSIA, PODOLIA, VOLHINIA, and UKRANIA, with an Account of their Situation, Produce, Inhabitants, Towns, Commerce, Manufactures, Religion, &c.

LITHUANIA, called Letwa by the natives, is a very extensive country, and was united to Poland in 1501. It has Red Russia, Volhinia, and Podolia, on the south; Great Poland, on the west; the Baltick, on the north; and Russia, on the east. It is in length about three hundred and sixty miles, and three hundred and forty in breadth, where widest; was formerly almost covered with woods, and still contains a great many considerable forests. It abounds in honey, wax, timber, pitch, tar, buffaloes, wild horses, wild asses, boars, elks, uris, woodcocks, pheasants, &c.

Great numbers of fish are produced in the numerous lakes; but their many lakes and forests occasion the air to be thick and foggy. Here are many flocks and herds; and buckwheat, as well as other grain, is pretty plentiful, so that provisions are cheap, though agriculture is greatly neglected; but money is extremely scarce.

The Roman catholic is the established religion; but Lutherans, Calvinists, Jews, Turks, Greeks, Socinians, &c. are tolerated. The nobility affect great pomp and dignity, and are exceeding fond of retaining a numerous train of domestics and attendants.

This country was governed by its own duke till it was united to Poland by the marriage of the great duke Jagello to Hedwig, the dowager of Lewis king of Poland and Hungary; but each country still retained its own laws, customs, privileges, dialect, &c. In a diet held at Lublin, in the year 1659, it was more firmly compacted with Poland than before, and a decree was made, that both countries should be under the same prince, and form but one state.

With respect to their courts of justice, the tenth part of what is adjudged in all real actions goes to the judge's bar, and is immediately paid into court. The judge claims half the damages given in personal actions, and a Lithuanian nobleman is permitted to compound for murder, by paying a fee. Those who are condemned to death, must either execute themselves, or be executed with the most excruciating torments.

The common people, the Germans and burghers, in the royal towns excepted, are slaves; and so exceedingly illiterate, that some of them even retain many of their antient idolatrous superstitions. The poor have only Monday to themselves, and sometimes their lords even deprive them of that.

They generally speak the Slavonic, which is the language used in all their courts of judicature; those of Prussia and Livonia have the jargon of both their languages.

They have a great mixture of Polish, and also of the Latin, which last is as common here as in Poland, and spoke by people of all ranks, inasmuch that Michalon, one of the authors, makes no doubt of their being descended from the old Romans; and the rather, because the Lithuanians had, not long since, the same customs and superstitions; as burning the dead, divining by augurs, and the like.

They commonly eat a coarse black sort of bread, made of rye, the footy wheat unwinnowed, and barley-ears, all ground together. They have fish, flesh, and fowl; and what cattle or poultry they think they shall not be able to keep in the winter, they usually kill in Autumn, and preserve with salt. Being for the most part good marksmen, they maintain their families by it, in a great measure. In every house

in the country they have four or five handmills to grind their corn.

They have also a sort of very long wooden trumpet, which when they sound, so deafens bye-standers, that they do not recover their hearing for a good while.

Country people have a sort of waggons or carts, all of wood, and made very light, by raddling or interweaving boughs with one another; and their coverings are commonly the same, not much unlike the colliers or lime-burners carts in England. The wheels are of one flat and entire piece of wood; and as the axletrees are never greased, a number of them together make an intolerable squeaking noise.

They build their houses round, and therefore call them towers. They are narrow, and open at top, to let out the smoak and stench; and they are generally covered with boards, straw, or bark of trees. In these the people and their cattle live together, by which both often receive hurt.

The men, in the winter, besides other business, stuff beds with chopt feathers and stalks that grow in the marshes; and part of the women's business within-doors is, to weave coarse cloth. Husbandry is followed here without-doors as in other countries. For fear of the incursions of the Tartars, the Lithuanians secure all their corn, straw, salt meat, and, in short, all their provisions, in caves, which they dig in the forests, and hide the entrance with the bark and branches of trees.

Vilna is the first palatinate of Lithuania: it comprehends three large districts, and is divided into two equal parts by the river Wilia, which afterwards passes through Samogitia and Prussia, by the name of Ruffe, into the Baltic, and has only three senators, viz. the bishop, palatine, and castellan of Vilna. The name is derived from the capital, not only of this palatinate, but of Lithuania, namely,

Vilna, Vilda, or Wilna, which the inhabitants call Vilenfki, and the Germans Wilde. It stands at the conflux of the Wilia and Wiln, seventy English miles north-east from Grodno, one hundred and fifty-two east from Koningsberg, and one hundred south from Mittaw, one hundred and thirty-one south from Riga, two hundred and seventeen north-east from Warsaw, two hundred and thirty-five east from Dantzick, one hundred and thirty Polish miles north-east from Cracow, and one hundred east from Smolensko. It was founded in 1305. It has a large populous town, with a good trade, but chiefly carried on by foreigners, the natives being poor and lazy. Their houses are so smoaky, and the inhabitants who are slaves to their noblemen and their bellies, eat so much garlic and onions, that half of them are blind before they grow old. They are much given to quarrels, and, if they murder a foreigner, pay only sixteen dollars. The streets are badly paved, dirty, and swarm with beggars; for here is no hospital. Most of the houses are low and mean, and built of wood, except those of some foreign merchants; the great duke's palace, the cathedral and churches, are all built of stone; as are also, the Bernardine monastery, the university, and the Moscovite company's warehouses, where they keep their ermines, fables, &c.

This being the most considerable staple for trade, is the seat of the chief court of judicature for Lithuania, who meet yearly at this place and at Minsk, by turns. All the inhabitants, except the members of the tribunal are under the jurisdiction of the palatine, who is governor of the city. Here are a ruinous old castle upon a hill, and another much more beautiful one of a modern structure at the lower part of the town; and in the duke's palace there is a well-furnished arsenal, or armoury, and a good library. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Stanislaus, stands in the lower castle: it has a large silver tomb of St. Casimir, who was canonized by Pope Leo X. Its revenues are considerable; and though the archbishop is a Roman catholic, he challenges jurisdiction over all the bishops of Polish Russia who are of the Greek religion; which is, however, disputed by the bishop of Kiow, who styles himself metropolitan of Russia. Here is a great bell, which requires twenty-four men to ring it, which was given by king Sigismund III. who also gave the silver tomb, and an altar of the same metal. The Jesuits college here was founded in 1579, by king Stephen, with professors of divinity, law, philosophy, the Hebrew language, and philology; and honoured with the title of an university by pope Gregory XIII.

The town is inhabited by Poles, Russians, Germans, Tartars, and other nations; as well as by the Lithuanians.

nians. The suburbs are as big as the town, and full of the like timber cottages, which have not partitions, but consist only of one room, common to the family and their cattle. Both the castles are built of bricks, and flanked with towers. The fortifications are but indifferent, and its gates are only shut in time of war. The protestants had a church and college here formerly, but were deprived of both by a decree of the diet of Poland, which, nevertheless, left the Greeks in possession of their monasteries, churches, and the free exercise of their religion.

The Tartars, who live along the banks of the river Vaca, which does not run far from Vilna, have waggons for the service of travellers. They live according to their own laws, without giving cause of complaint, and own the king of Poland for their sovereign. Great numbers of them reside in the villages of a valley three miles from hence in the way to Königsberg. Foreign merchants seldom come hither but in the winter, when the marshes are frozen, and they can bring their goods on sledges over the same. There was so great a famine in these parts, in 1571, that in Vilna alone there died of it no less than twenty-five thousand; here was a great tumult in 1581, on account of the bishop's zeal in burning the books of the Lutherans, Calvinists, and Russians: in 1610, the Russians, to be revenged for the mischief done by the Poles at Smolensko, took this place, and set fire to it, by which four thousand seven hundred houses were reduced to ashes, together with seven catholic and three other churches: so that the queen of Poland had but just time to escape, with her attendants, in boats; of which some, nevertheless, were drowned. In 1644, the scholars raised a great tumult, which could not be appeased till major Oginski came with four hundred soldiers, of whom several were killed in the skirmish, together with the major himself.

Eighty miles north-east from Vilna, and eighty-eight south-east from Riga, is the town of Braslaw; and the town of Wilkomitz is situated on the river Swiera.

The province of Troki has Novogrodoc to the south, Samogitia to the north, Vilna to the east, and the kingdom of Prussia to the west. It is divided into four districts; but the palatine and the castellan of the city, which gives name to it, are the only two senators.

The town of Troki, which gives name to the palatinate, is large, and built of wood, and situated among lakes, marshes, &c. It has two castles, and was formerly the residence of the dukes of Lithuania. Here are also the towns of Birze, Kowno or Conno, Calvarie, and Merocz.

The town of Grodno is large and handsome, and, next to Wilna, the best in Lithuania: it is situated in fifty-three degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude, and in twenty-three degrees, fifty-two minutes, east longitude. It stands on the river Niemen, partly on an eminence, and partly on a level, and is encompassed with hills. The old castle, which is surrounded with a deep moat, is fallen to decay, so that no more than one wing of it is inhabited. The new palace is a large, regular, and beautiful structure, consisting of two stories; the great hall, that for the senate, and the chapel, are its finest apartments; and in the court stands the chancery or state-office, which is an elegant structure.

In this city are nine Popish and two Greek churches, and also a synagogue for the Jews, which is built of stone. The Jesuits college has a splendid church, and that belonging to the Carmelite nuns is likewise very magnificent. The palace of prince Radzivil is a very large structure, and that of the Sapichan family is a superb edifice: both of them stand in the market-place, which, together with the castle-street, and the area before the palace, are clean and well-paved; but the other streets are generally dirty. In 1673, it was enacted that, for the future, every third general diet should be held here; and during the session, the concourse of people has been so great, that four apartments, with the stables adjoining to them have been let for two hundred and sixty ducats a month. Here are also held a provincial diet and a court of judicature.

The province of Poleria, in Lithuanian Russia, contains several large morasses, that resemble so many extensive lakes.

The principal towns in this palatinate are, 1. Brzesk, which is a strong, but not a very large town, situated on the river Bug, and a castle built on a rock, near which is a royal palace with a fine garden. In this town is a famous synagogue, to which the Jews resort from all the countries of Europe, both on account of study, and preferment among their own people. A provincial diet is held here, and a Greek bishop resides in this town. 2. Pinsk,

where a provincial diet is also held, is a large, handsome, trading town, on the river Pina, situated in the midst of extensive morasses, and inhabited not only by the Jews, who have a school here, but also by people of many other religions, especially by the Greeks, who have a bishop here. The leather dressed in this town, after the Russian manner, is esteemed the best in the whole kingdom.

Black Russia is also comprized in Lithuanian Russia. This province is called, by the Poles, Rus Czarna, which includes the palatinate of Novogrodec and contains four districts, the principal place of which is, Novogrodec, a town situated on a hill, in which are several popish and Russian convents, with a college of Jesuits. It has a provincial diet, and an inferior court of judicature: an high tribunal, after the model of that of Wilna, which continues sitting five months in the year, is held alternately here and at Minsk.

There are four palatinates in White Russia, called, by the Poles, Rus Biala, the most considerable places in which are, 1. Minsk, which is seated on the river Swiſloecz, in the palatinate of Minsk, and has two castles. This town was taken by the Russians in 1656. A provincial diet is held here, besides a high tribunal once in two years. 2. Mohilow, in the palatinate of Mischislaw, is a handsome commercial town on the river Nieper, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with the Russians. In 1654, Mohilow was taken by the Russians; and though it was invested by the Poles in 1660, they were obliged to raise the siege. It was, however, taken from the Russians in 1662 by the inhabitants, who sent off part of the garrison by stratagem, and then made the rest prisoners of war. 3. Poloc, a fortified town on the river Dawina, and in the palatinate of Poloc. It has two strong castles, and carries on a considerable trade. In 1563, this town was taken by the Russians, but retaken by the Poles in 1579. The Jesuits have a college here, and the Greeks an academy for the study of philosophy. A popish Greek bishop also resides here. In this town are likewise held a provincial diet, and a court of judicature.

The Livonian palatinate, called by the Poles Woicwodztwo Instankie, was formerly a part of Livonia, and is also termed the palatinate of Wend; the Poles, on delivering up Livonia to the Swedes, by the treaty of Oliva, reserved this part, which has a bishop, a palatine, and a castellan, and sends six deputies to the general diet. It has also five or six small towns within its district.

The province of Samogitia, called by the Poles Zmuyds, or Xiestwo Zmudskie, is bounded on the north by Courland, on the east by Lithuania, on the south by Regal Prussia, and on the west by the Baltick Sea, it being about an hundred and seventy miles in length, and about an hundred and twenty-five in breadth; but as the two territories are much contracted, this is only to be understood of its largest and broadest parts.

This country has for the most part a marshy soil, and abounds with rivers and lakes, which at some seasons overflow the land. Here are also inaccessible mountains; the country is much over-run with woods, in which the inhabitants find great quantities of honey; for it is said that almost every tree has a swarm of bees; and their wax is whiter and purer than either that of Lithuania or Russia. We are told that though the arable land is very stiff, the inhabitants use none but wooden plough-shares; because one of their starostas, introducing iron shares, and the season afterwards proving less kindly than usual, they had the weakness to attribute the cause solely to this change; upon which he was forced to let them return to the use of the wooden plough-shares, for fear the prohibition should cause an insurrection. Samogitia abounds with cattle, and has a breed of horses, which are sprightly, swift, and hardy, though small.

Samogitia anciently belonged to Lithuania; but in the year 1404, was ceded to the knights of the Teutonic order: about four years after, it was taken from them by Uladislaus Jagello, king of Poland; after whose death it returned again to them; but in 1525, when Albert of Brandenburg was made hereditary duke of Prussia, it returned to the crown of Poland. The Christian religion had been introduced for some time, and it was made a bishop's see in 1413.

There is but little difference between the peasants of this country and those of Lithuania; but the former are not so laborious, and consequently enjoy less plenty. Many of them, instead of bread, eat turneps, which grow wild, and are of a prodigious size. They are robust, bold, and nimble; and it is not uncommon for people to live to a hundred or a hundred and twenty years of age. The peasants

peasants live in cottages, for the most part near lakes and rivers, and these are covered with thatch or boards. They are low, and of an oblong square, with a hearth in the middle; their furniture is but mean, and they and their cattle lodge together in one room.

Persons in good circumstances drink out of horn cups, and eat out of wooden platters. However, most of the inhabitants differ but little from the Lithuanians in their manners, habit, or language.

There are about twenty-eight towns in Samogitia; but all of them are small and ill built; among these is Mednicki, where the bishop of Samogitia resides, and Rosienie, where the provincial diet and a court of judicature are held.

The duchy of Courland, which is dependant and under the protection of Poland, is bounded on the west by the Baltick, on the north by the gulf of Riga and Livonia, towards the east by Lithuania Proper, and by Samogitia towards the south. It extends fifty German miles in length, and some places twenty, and in others hardly ten German miles in breadth; but towards the south-west it gradually terminates in a point of land, or promontory.

Except in a few districts, the soil is heavy, fat, and clayish, and the country abounds in woods and swamps: hence the roads of Courland are remarkably bad. In spring and autumn the meadows and low grounds are under water; but this only serves to improve the land. Some skilful farmers have drained several of the fenny parts of Courland, and converted them into what they call *staungens*: that is, land which is sown three years successively with summer seed, and then left uncultivated for a like term. Courland, however, contains good arable land and fine pastures, and produces great quantities of excellent flax. Here is also plenty of sea fish, and the woods abound with elks, bears, and wolves. Courland has also its mines of iron ore and other minerals, its quarries of stone, chalk, and fluocco, and its mineral springs. Amber is likewise found on the coast.

The Windau and Aa are the principal rivers in this country; the former rises in Samogitia, and discharges itself into the Baltick near the town of Windau; and the Aa, which has also its source in Samogitia, empties itself into the gulf of Riga. The small rivers are the Anger, the Abau, the Berse, the Bartau, the Mussa, and some others.

Most of the inhabitants of Courland are Germans and Lettonians; but the latter are not only the tenants and vassals of the former, but in a manner their slaves. Hence there are two languages usually spoken in Courland, the German and the Lettonian.

So early as the year 1522, the reformation, or Lutheran religion, took place in this duchy; and in 1532 Courland joined with Riga in a particular religious league; so that when this country fell under the dominion of Poland, all the inhabitants were Lutherans, and they had no papists amongst them. But the misunderstandings which afterwards happened between the dukes and nobles of Courland occasioned several orders to be issued by the court of Poland, and judiciary commissions to be deputed from thence, by which means a fatal gap was opened, by which popery entered.

The Roman catholics were at first only permitted to have churches in this country; but they soon raised themselves to a level with the Lutherans. In 1717 and 1727 they received some additional privileges, and several of the nobility who had embraced the doctrines of popery, exerting their zeal in order to introduce it into the churches within their jurisdictions, greatly contributed to its spreading over the country. The marriages of the dukes of Courland with princesses who were Calvinists, also introduced that religion into the duchy; but the Calvinists are excluded from all employments in the state.

Great privileges are enjoyed by the nobility of Courland, and the more ancient class of them is carefully distinguished from the new; for by an old law, which has been frequently confirmed, the former alone are capable of filling posts of honour. The noblemen of Courland generally embrace a military life. They enjoy in Poland the same privileges as the natives, and a Polish nobleman has the same indulgence in Courland. However, neither of them enjoy that privilege till they are settled in those countries; and indeed a Courlandish nobleman at present seldom holds any eminent post in Poland, except that of the law, unless he be a papist.

The nobility of Courland have no seat in the general diet of Poland. But a noble Courlander is proprietor of all the mines discovered in his estate: he is not to be taken into custody, or his effects confiscated, till he has been

previously summoned and legally convicted before a court of judicature: his house is an asylum, from which no person can forcibly be taken: his tenants, vassals, and domestics are exempted from paying any toll, custom, or excise; and no soldiers are to be quartered on the estate of a Courlander. No new created nobleman is qualified to hold a post of honour, or to be a magistrate till the third generation; nor can he be sent as an envoy, unless he has distinguished himself in the service of his country, or is recommended by some of the ancient noble families.

Among other privileges, the nobility have an unlimited power over their vassals, which extends even to life and death; but before they can punish a vassal with death, they are obliged to hold a regular court, under the penalty of paying a hundred florins; each florin equal to fourteen-pence sterling. Hence the respect paid by the peasants to their lords rises almost to adoration, and whatever these require from them they are obliged to give up, and immediately obey their commands without murmuring. The nobility are all on a level, and have, in conjunction with the duke, the patronage of the parish churches; the duke being patron of some, and the nobility of the others.

In war-time, they appear on horseback, according to the service they owe the duke as his vassal: but when such a general military appearance is required, the duke is obliged to march at their head. They indeed chuse their own colonels and other officers; but these are all under the duke's command. They are, however, not obliged to march beyond the frontiers of Courland, except the duke voluntarily agrees to pass beyond those limits.

Disputes between the duke and his nobles are decided only by the king of Poland in person. The judges here are four captains or superintendants; two of which are for Courland properly so called, and two for Semigallia; but from these an appeal lies to the high council, in which the duke presides in person, and even from this council a second appeal may be made to the government of Poland, if the case is sufficiently important.

The whole duchy is divided into Courland Proper on the west side, and Semigallia on the east side of the river Massa; and each of these into captainships: the first captainship of Courland Proper is Goldingen, so named from its chief town, which was formerly one of the Hanse. It is not considerable at present, except for its large jurisdiction, though it is adorned with a very fine castle. This town stands on the river Wataw, which falls into the Baltick thirty miles off, and is seventy-fourth-west from Riga.

The town of Windaw, called by the inhabitants Kiese, hath a harbour on the mouth of the Baltick, ninety miles north of Memel, and forty miles north-west from Goldingen. It is reckoned the capital city of a palatinate of the same name, has a castle, formerly the residence of the Livonian knights, and the palace where the states of Courland held their assemblies: but is now much decayed, being only supported by building ships for the duke, and by its trade in pitch, tar, wax, &c. which it exports.

The town of Libaw lies on the coast thirty miles south-west from Goldingen, and forty-two north of Memel, and has a good road and harbour. And Piltyn, or Piltén, on the river Anger, eighteen miles north-west of Goldingen, is a palatinate, as well as the seat of the bishop of Courland. About fifty miles east of Goldingen is the captainship of Tuckum, so called from its chief town. The eastern division of Courland, namely Semigallia, has Livonia Proper on the north, the palatinate of Plöczkow on the east, and Samogitia on the south.

On the river Mussa, fifty-two miles south of Riga, stands Mittaw, the capital of Semigallia, and indeed of the whole duchy, as well as the seat and burial-place of its dukes, who have a magnificent castle, which is fortified by two bastions encompassed by marshes, and has always a strong garrison. The town is also well-fortified, though meanly built, the houses being partly of brick, partly of timber, and some of mixed materials: it is large, and the seat of the diets of the duchy; the inhabitants are only between three and four thousand. It was several times taken by the Swedes, particularly by Gustavus Adolphus in 1621, again in 1701, and also by the Russians in 1705, but as often recovered. The Aa river, on which the castle stands, passes by the city to the Dwina, with a deep channel, which might be navigable, if the people of Riga had not choaked up the mouth of it, for their own interest.

The town of Bauske, seventeen miles south-east of Mittaw, is another strong town, on the river Mussa, or Plussa, with a castle built on a rock; here is a large garrison. It was taken by the Swedes in 1701, with the king of

of Poland's magazines, valued at three hundred thousand crowns, and he demanded sixty thousand from the duchy, besides vast quantities of provisions. In 1705 the Czar surprised this town by stratagem, and forced the Swedish garrison in the castle to surrender, just after a victory he had obtained over them near Masiendorf in this duchy. The Swedes repossessed it, but quitted it, with the whole duchy, in 1709, after levying from the inhabitants large sums of money.

Warsovia, or the duchy of Warsaw, called by the Poles Mazouze, may be reckoned the most considerable part of their king's dominions, because it is honoured with the residence of the king, and vast numbers of the nobility; Prussia on the north, Upper Poland on the south, Lower Poland and Cujavia on the west, and Polachia, which parts it from Lithuania, on the east. It is about a hundred and twenty miles in length from south-west to north-east, and about ninety in breadth; though some make the former a hundred and thirty, and the latter a hundred and twenty. It has the benefit of several navigable rivers, especially the Weiffel, which runs through the south part; and the Bug, which passes quite cross from east to west.

The country is plain, and the soil fruitful, yielding plenty of corn, cattle, fish, and fowl. It was formerly governed by Princes of its own, but in 1526, fell to the king of Poland. The people, who are generally warlike, speak the same language with the Poles, only they differ in a few guttural accents; and their manners, habits and religion are much the same. It is divided into three palatinates, of which Masovia Proper, has eight senators, and is subject in spirituals to the bishop of Posen.

Warsaw is the capital of this province, and the metropolis of all Poland: it is situated on the west side of the Weiffel, in the very centre of Poland, a hundred and twenty miles east of Gnesna, and west from the confines of Lithuania, a hundred and fifty-one south from Konigsberg, a hundred and fifty-four south-east of Dantzick, and a hundred and thirty-three north of Cracow and Posen, three hundred north-east of Vienna, and four hundred and fifty south of Stockholm. Dr. Connor places it three Polish miles (each of which are four Italian miles) from Lesser Poland, twenty-four from Landscut, as many north-east from Lublin, twenty-nine south east from Thorn, and thirty north from Sandomar. It is a large, handsome, populous, and trading city, defended by a double wall, and a ditch. The kings of Poland usually keep their court here in a noble large square palace, built by Sigismund III. and beautified by his successors; and the grand diets of the kingdom have their sessions here.

The city is divided into four parts, viz. the old and new towns, the suburbs of Cracow, and the Brag or Prag. The chief church, dedicated to St. John Baptist, is very fine; as are the arsenal, the castle, the market-place, and other public buildings. There is a wooden bridge of excellent workmanship over the river, and beyond it the king's palace, called Viasdow, where the general diet meets. It was built by Ladislaus VII. and stands amidst delicate gardens and groves; and not far from it, in the suburb called Craeow, there is a small chapel erected by the king of Poland, in token of a victory over the Moscovites; wherein is a sepulchral monument of Demetrius Suiscius, great duke of Moscovy, who, being taken prisoner, died a captive in Poland. Goods are brought to this city by the neighbouring rivers, and sent from hence to Dantzick.

The king of Sweden took possession of this city in 1704, put a garrison into the castle next year, when he demanded two thousand four hundred florins a week for their subsistence; but in 1706, king Augustus recovered both the town and castle, and the town paid him fifty thousand rix-dollars to be exempted from plunder. In 1705, the Swedes defeated the Saxons and Lithuanians near this city, when the Saxon general Patkul was taken prisoner; and next year Stanislaus, king Augustus's rival, was crowned here with his queen. In 1707, the Moscovites plundered the palaces and gardens of the king and nobility here, and sent the statues, &c. to Moscow. Next year a plague raged here, that is said to have carried off near thirty thousand people; and a fire broke out, which continued burning nine days, and almost reduced the whole city to ashes. In 1712, king Augustus returned hither, and held a general diet, which re-acknowledged his title. In 1715, he ordered this city to be fortified with intrenchments, to prevent surprise by the Swedes, and their allies.

A gentleman who spent some time in this city, says, he observed the same politeness here as at Paris; that the king maintains a set of French comedians, and frequently gives

balls and concerts, with noble feasts, for the entertainment of the nobility: and that the ladies, especially, are passionately fond of music and plays; are very amiable, witty, and sprightly; and have a most delicate taste for diversions of every kind.

Near the village of Wola, which is about half a league from this city, there is a plain, where the nobles meet, and incamp in tents, for the election of a king; and about a league from the city there is another palace, called Villa Nova, that was built by the late king John Sobieski.

The city of Czerko, or Czestochow, is also situated on the west side of the Weiffel, eighteen miles south from Warsaw. It is the capital of its palatinate, and is reckoned the strongest city in this part of the country, it having a fortress, wherein is kept that rich treasure called the Virgin's: and the nobility send their best effects hither in time of war.

The town of Wischgood is seventeen miles from Ploczko, and thirty-three north-west from Warsaw. Lumfa is a large city on the Narew, about twenty miles from Novogrod. Pultowa is twenty-seven miles north-east of Warsaw.

The province of Poluchia hath Warsaw on the west, Lithuania on the east, the palatinates of Polena and Lublin on the south, and the kingdom of Prussia on the north. It is a hundred and twenty miles long, from north to south, and thirty in breadth from east to west.

The chief places are, 1. Augustaw, a handsome town on the lake Augustine. 2. Bielez, a large town on the river Biela. 3. Bialystock, a small town, of which great part was destroyed by fire in the year 1753. 4. Tykoczin, a considerable town, with a handsome castle, on the river Narew.

Southward of the palatinate of Novogrodec, is that of Polena, betwixt Red Russia on the south-east, Lublin on the north-west, and that of Novogrodec on the north. It is overgrown with woods, has many lakes and pools; is two hundred and thirty miles from east to west, eighty from south to north.

This palatinate has two senators, viz. the palatine and castellan of its capital, which is Briefcia, a large wooden city, which has a bridge over the river Bug, on the confines of Lithuania, fifty miles south of Bielik, and ninety-five east of Warsaw. It is fortified with a strong castle, built on a rock, and washed by the river Muchawecz. Here is an academy, the most famous in Europe for Jews, who frequent it from Italy, Germany, Moravia, Silesia, &c. Here is a royal palace of modern architecture, with variety of pleasant gardens, without the city. 2. Puisko is another timber-built city, seventy-five miles east of the former, on the river Peripet, which passing by divers towns in Russia, falls into the Boristhenes. 3. Biela, twenty miles south-east of Briefcia.

The district of Red Russia is near a hundred and eighty miles in length, and upwards of a hundred in breadth, fertile in some parts, but mountainous in others, and in general well watered. It is bounded on the south, by Hungary and Moldavia; on the east, by Tartarian deserts; on the north, by White Russia; and on the west, by Little Poland.

Here are three palatinates in Red Russia, viz. Lemberg, Chelm, and Belz. That of Lemberg has nine senators, and is situated on the south part of Red Russia, east of Cracow, and north of Hungary.

Lemberg, or Leopold, is the capital of the palatinate of the same name, and also of all Red Russia. It is situated among hills, on the river Peltew, at the distance of a hundred and thirty-five miles south-west from Warsaw, and is the see of an archbishop, who is deemed both a spiritual and temporal lord.

The city is large, well-built, and well-fortified, having two castles, one within the walls, and one without, on a rising ground, which commands the town; both which, together with the city, were founded by Leo, duke of Russia, about anno 1289. The churches here are generally fair and well-built, and abound with costly ornaments of all kinds. Here is an academy, supplied by professors from that of Cracow; and learned men are much encouraged here. The Armenian Roman catholics, have dwelt here time out of mind, and are wholly governed by their own prelate: they enjoy great privileges, on account of the considerable commerce they maintain with the Persians, and other eastern nations. They are not only provided with fish for their own consumption, from the many ports belonging to it, and from the neighbouring rivers, but salt great quantities, and transport them over Poland. Barbels are taken in great numbers in Roxolania.

Roxolania. Here is kept a very famous winter-fair, to which great numbers of Hungarian, Moldavian, and, in time of peace, Turkish merchants, resort.

Other places of less note are, 1. Javarow, thirty-five miles west from Lemberg. 2. Premislaw, a populous, pleasant, trading, and well-built city, and an episcopal see, on the river Saa, fifty-three miles west from Lemberg: it is defended by strong walls. 3. Jaroslaw, on the same river, sixty-two miles west from Lemberg. It is famed for a fair held on Lady-day, to which are usually brought four hundred thousand black cattle, and two hundred thousand horses. 4. Resovia, on the river Wistoch, six miles south-west of Lanfut: it has a strong castle, an annual fair, and a linen manufactory. 5. Lencut, or Lanfut, eighty-five miles west from Lemberg.

Pocutia, or the district of Halicz, is the name given to the south-east part of Red Russia. It has the mountain of Transylvania on the south and west, and Moldavia on the east, and is divided into two parts by the river Niester, which rises in it.

The town of Halicz, at the conflux of the Niester and Prut, is situated forty-two miles south-east from Lemberg. It was once the metropolis of a kingdom, then the capital of a duchy, and afterwards the see of an archbishop, which hath been since translated to Lemberg, so that now it is greatly fallen from its ancient splendor. The other towns are, 1. Czosna, on the river Wislock, eighty-four miles south-west of Lemberg. 2. Sniatyn, on the river Prut, and the confines of Walachia and Moldavia, forty miles south-east of Halicz: it is a wooden pallisadoed town.

The town of Chelmisin the palatinate of the same name. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Lemberg, and is situated a hundred and ten miles south-east from Warsaw. Here is also the town of Krasnow, on the Wieprz, which has a court of judicature, and is the residence of a starosta, and of the bishop of Chelm.

The following towns are in the palatinate of Belz, viz. 1. Horodla, where a provincial diet and court of judicature are held, and a starosta resides. 2. Rawa, a small town. 3. Belz, a considerable town, from which the palatinate receives its name. 4. Zamoski, which is strongly fortified, has many considerable privileges, contains a charitable foundation called Mons Pietatis, and several churches.

Caminiec, called by the Poles Kaminiot Podolski, is watered by the river Smertick, and is situated about one hundred and ten miles below the Dniester. The city of the same name is the capital of the province, is two hundred and twenty-four miles east from Cracow, and two hundred and thirty south-east from Warsaw.

It is a populous, well-built city, surrounded with high rocks, besides being fortified with walls, a deep, broad, and steep ditch filled with water by the river, which almost surrounds it, and by a very strong castle; so that it is the strongest place on this side, and used to be reckoned one of the keys of Poland. In the reign of king Sigismund III. it was taken by the Cossacks, by capitulation. It has been attacked several times by the Walachians, Turks, and Tartars.

In 1669, it suffered miserably by fire; and in 1672, was taken by the Turks, who kept possession of it, and thereby often made inroads to Poland, and carried away vast numbers of captives; till it was agreed to be surrendered by the peace at Carlowitz, in the year 1699, and evacuated next spring to the Poles; when the diet resolved, that this town and Podolia, should be free from taxes, for ten years. It is the see of two bishops, one a papist, the other an Armenian. The Greeks of Podolia pleaded to be restored to their churches, but this was not granted.

Lower Podolia, which is the east part, and also called the palatinate of Braclaw, from its chief town, on the river Bog, forty miles from the confines of Moldavia, and ninety-two east from Caminiec. It was taken by the Turks in 1672; but restored in 1699, by the treaty above-mentioned.

In this district are also the following places, viz. 1. Winnicza, on the same river, fifty-four miles north-west from Braclaw. 2. Zbaras, a little city on the frontiers of Lower Volhinia, ten leagues north from Braclaw. 3. Humnarn, about five leagues west from the frontiers of Lower Volhinia.

The district of Volhinia lies eastward of the palatinate of Chelm, and is divided into upper and lower palatinates: it is three hundred and ten miles in length from south-east

to north-west, and a hundred and ninety miles in the broadest part.

The Upper Volhinia, called also the palatinate of Lufuc, or Lucko, from its chief town, has Chelm and Belcz on the west, Polesia on the north, Podolia on the south, and the Ukrain on the east. It is a plentiful country, near two hundred miles in length, and a hundred in breadth.

The chief town of this palatinate stands on the river Ster, near a lake, which encompasses part of the castle, ninety miles north-east from Lemberg. It is a large city built of timber, and the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Gnesna, but is chiefly inhabited by Jews, Armenians, and other eastern people, who traffic in these countries. The cathedral and chapter-house are in one of the castles, there being two built on the hills near their city. A Russian bishop also resides here.

Here are also the following towns of less note; namely, 1. Pilaveze, on the river Bug, two leagues from Chimielnich. 2. Krzemence, the capital of Cremen, thirty-five miles south-east from Lufuc. 3. Ulodimir, or Weldzimiers, on the river Lug, forty-eight miles from Lufuc. It is the residence of a Russian bishop, with a considerable jurisdiction. 4. Brodi, a strong town, which has a collegiate church and a public academy. 5. Olika, twenty miles east from Lufuc, with the title of a duchy; it is adorned with a fair cathedral, and has an academy. 6. Constantinow, seventy-five miles north from Caminiec, stands near the source of the river Slacz, and is adorned and defended by a well-fortified castle.

Lower Volhinia, commonly called the palatinate of Kiow, together with Lower Podolia, comprehended in the Ukrain, lies east from the Upper Volhinia; and the river Boristhenes, or the Nieper, passes through the middle of it, from north-west to south-east, dividing it into two parts, of which only the western is now subject to Poland; the eastern being under the Russians: the former is fruitful, but the latter, from the Tartar incursions, is a mere desert.

Ukrania is a large country, bounded on the north by part of Poland and Russia; on the south, by Little Tartary; on the east, by the Oczakow Tartars; and on the west by Moldavia. The name Ukrain is Slavonic, and signifies a frontier, which it really is to the Turks and Tartars. This is the country of the Cossacks, who have their name from Kosa a Scythe, their usual weapon, or Cosa, which in the Russian language signifies a free-booter, or plunderer. They were originally a crew of dissolute rovers, that assembled together, from the frontiers of Russia, Volhinia, and Podolia, to practise piracy on the Black Sea. Their chief habitation was betwixt the rivers Niester and Nieper; but they extended themselves a great way east from the latter. The Cossack language is a dialect of the Polish, and is full of diminutives, and pleasant expressions. Their common people are of the Greek church; but the better sort are generally Romans, or protestants.

Their first considerable appearance, as an united body, was in 1548, in the reign of Sigismund I. king of Poland, when they called themselves volunteers, and assembled, to the number of six thousand, for defence of the country against the Turks and Tartars, whom they frequently intercepted, at the passes of Nieper, in returning with their prey. Being soon joined by multitudes to share their booty, they could with shallow boats pass those rocks in the mouth of the river Boristhenes, that hinder the navigation from the Ukrain, to the Black Sea; and during the summer, they roved all over that sea, and its coasts, making descents upon Natolia, and pillaging and spoiling wherever they came, even to the walls of Constantinople.

Stephen Bathori, king of Poland, formed them into an orderly militia; and, intending to use them against the Tartars, gave them the town and territory of Trethimirow in this palatinate (which they made their magazine) appointed a general over them, and gave them many privileges; and for some time they did the Poles great service, by opposing the Tartars: but being sensible of their strength, they began to set up for themselves; and in the year 1589, rebelled; but their general being taken and executed, it was for a time quieted.

About the year 1600, they were so powerful, that the Poles were forced to raise a large army against them, who often worsted them, and took their generals; but still they continued mutinous: wherefore their privileges were taken away, and they continued in a state of enmity, till about the year 1640. King Uladislaus VI. making war upon the Tartars, collected them together, and set over them

them for a general, Chmielniski, who was afterwards a bitter and formidable enemy to Poland; for the Cossacks being oppressed by the Polish nobility their landlords, and on complaint, receiving no redress, they armed in vast numbers; and calling in the Tartars, furiously attacked the Poles; but king John Casimir made such a stand against them, that in 1649, the Tartars accepted a peace.

Chmielniski, having obliged the prince of Moldavia to join him, it produced another war in 1651, wherein the Tartars and Cossacks were worsted, and since that time they have not been so considerable as formerly.

This country was resigned in 1677 by the Poles to the Turks, with liberty to the Cossacks of this part, to chuse their own general, or prince, dependant on the sultan, who kept possession of it till the year 1699, when by the peace of Carlowitz it was restored to the Poles.

The only towns of note, on the west side of the Nieper, are, 1. Bialacerkiew, about forty miles south of Kiow. 2. Trethimirow, on the Nieper, fifty miles above Kiow, a strong place defended by a castle, is the same, which, as we said above, was given to the Cossacks, by king Bathori. 3. Czyrkassy, which used to be the chief retreat of the Cossacks, stands near the same river eighty miles above Kiow. 'Twas burnt by the Poles, in 1636, but has been repaired since that time.

S E C T. IV.

Treating of the Inhabitants of POLAND, their Manners, Customs, Constitution and Government, Trade, Manufactures, Revenues, Land-Forces, &c.

THE complexion of the Poles is generally inclining to be fair, and their hair to a pale yellow. Their stature is commonly somewhat above the middle size. Their constitutions are generally good, and their bodies inclinable to be gross; so that the women of quality make it their chief study to be lean and thin: but they abhor painting and washes, nor have they any occasion for it. The Poles in general have no manner of regard to their clergy, and think themselves wise enough to be their own guides. They exceed most of the European nations in vivacity, strength, and long life. The poorer sort have a liquor distilled from wheat, barley, oats, and cyder; which the gentry rectify with aniseeds and spices. The Poles hate effeminacy, and love a cottage as well as a palace. The gentry seldom lie on any other beds but quilts. The slaves sleep frequently in snow and frost without any bed, or other conveniency. Their chief exercises are hunting, dancing and vaulting; and they are expert horsemen. The common people frequently weave tapestry and arras as they travel.

As to the genius of the people, they are, as Puffendorf observes, commonly downright and honest, very seldom guilty of dissimulation, of a generous spirit, and expect a great deal of respect, to which they make suitable returns; yet they are fierce and extravagant, much inclined to an uncontrouled liberty, or rather licentiousness and petulance, which produces frequent factions and conspiracies. They do not want courage, but are more fit for sudden action than the long fatigue of a war. This is spoken of the gentry: but the meaner sort are poor spirited, and therefore the Polish infantry are not valuable; but Cossacks, or foreigners, are made use of on all occasions of war.

With respect to their apparel, the nobility, merchants, and superior tradesmen, dress like the English and French, though in a few trivial articles they retain some of their original modes. The ladies abhor painting; but in general are very coarse and indelicate in their manners; and the common people dress in bear skins; and are so wretchedly poor as to be unable to build a small hut, so that they are sometimes obliged to live in caves and holes under ground.

Their language is not copious, as they speak a dialect of the Slavonic: it is at the same time harsh, and hard to pronounce: for it so abounds with consonants, that some words have seven or eight without any vowel; yet they sound them with vowels in speaking.

Fresh meat, fowl, and fish are their usual diet; and they drink the strongest of Rhenish, French, Spanish, Italian, and Hungarian wines; brandy, aqua vitæ, aniseed water, and other spirits. Their sauces, &c. are so enriched with spices, that some of the nobility spend great sums in that commodity; and their usual breakfast is a hot-pot of beer, with eggs, sugar, and ginger. They hang the carcases of swine at their gates till they stink; then dress and eat them

as a great curiosity, to be met with no where but at the tables of their chief nobility; yet their butchers meat is delicious, and they have plenty of good fish.

When they are invited to another's table, they must carry their spoons, knives, &c. with them; and their linen, too, if they would be cleanly: for they have no napkins, but a broad piece of starched linen sewed round the table cloth, that their servants may not steal it. The ladies carry napkins with them, and put up as much sweetmeats and dried fruit as they please. The masters reach meat from the table to the servants, who eat it as they stand by the chairs: and the master of the feast is reckoned a niggard, if he don't make his guests drunk.

The Hungarian wine, though very dear, is drank as common as water: but it is customary for the master of the house and his intimates, to drink the best wine, while the other guests that are invited are obliged to put up with the common sort. Their houses are generally low, for they seldom lie above stairs. Some of them are of brick and stone, but the greatest part of wood. The kitchen is on one side of the court, the stable in another, the dwelling-house is on a third, and the gate in the front. The richer sort have hangings of tapestry or arras, and beds with taffety-curtains; but seldom any accommodation to lodge strangers.

The Poles were converted from Paganism to Christianity by Aldeber, archbishop of Gnesna, about the year 964, and ever since, the religion of the church of Rome hath been predominant here, except in Red Russia, where many of the people adhere to the Greek church. Some of the Greek church submit to that of Rome, and are called Uniti, or Uniats, but have their worship in the Greek. They have also Armenians who comply with the church of Rome, but have their worship in their own language. The king, though a Papist, is obliged by his coronation oath to tolerate Lutheranism in Polish Prussia, where there are whole cities of Lutherans, as Dantzick, Elbing, Thorn, and Marienburg: and some Calvinists, especially in the ducal Prussia.

Faustus Socinus was of this nation; and his followers, from him called Socinians, grew numerous in the last century: but king John Casimir made an edict against them, which was enforced by his successor king John Sobieski, who drove them quite out of the kingdom for publishing a book intitled, *Tormentum Trinitatem Throno deturbans*. The generality of the Papists here are very great bigots, and their interest is strengthened by the presidencies of the bishops in the grand and petty diets. The inferior clergy have a place also in all the courts of judicature; and the great secretary of the kingdom is always a churchman.

The regular clergy, as they call the monks, are more esteemed than the secular; and the mendicant friars have the privilege to enter the privatest room of any house without knocking at the door. The secular clergy are generally rich, but openly debauched; and are neither rebuked for it by their superiors nor the people. The inferior clergy seldom attend their office in the church, but give poor scholars two-pence a day to officiate for them; nor do the bishops correct the inferior clergy for their misbehaviour. The common people may be drunk without rebuke on their fast-days, provided they abstain from flesh, &c. and they will not eat butter and cheese on such days, though the pope give them a dispensation; as he did in cardinal Radzioufski's time; for which they called the pope a heretic.

At the elevation of the host the people knock their heads against the pavement, or benches, hard enough to be heard at a distance. Their churches are fine, and well adorned; and the priests affect rich vestments. The priests at Leopold have a cape they wear at mass so thick embroidered with pearl and jewels, that it is quite burdensome. In order to preserve their feet from the excessive cold in winter, the ladies, and some of the men, use furred bags in churches.

Their diseases chiefly proceed from drunkenness, to which they are so addicted, that they have a proverb signifying, that a man may as well drink water as wine, if he does not feel the effects of drinking. The distemper peculiar to the Poles, is that called the Plica; in which the hair of the head is matted together and entangled in one night's time, in spite of all care to prevent it. If it be cut off, it occasions a dimness of sight, if not a total loss of it, together with an eruption of pustules all over the body, and pains in the head and limbs; yet foreigners, who have been infected with it, say, they have cut off their hair without any bad consequence. The Poles are not much troubled with other diseases; and the scurvy, malignant

lignant fevers, and pleurifies, are seldom of such ill consequence here as in other countries. Their baptismal and matrimonial ceremonies are the same as among the Roman catholics in general.

The funerals of the people of quality are so pompous and magnificent, that they look more like triumphs. The corpse is carried in a hearse or chariot drawn by six horses, all covered with black. The coffin has a large black velvet paul over it, with a cross of red sattin in the middle, and six long black silk tassels, supported by six of the deceased's domestics in close mourning. Several priests, monks, and others, walk before the hearse with wax-tapers; and immediately before it come three men on horseback, who carry the arms of the deceased, one his sword, another his lance, and the third his dart; and as soon as the funeral service is over, they ride furiously into the church, break the arms of the deceased upon the coffin, and the body is interred: after which there is a feast, wherein both clergy and laity drink to excess. When women of quality mourn, they wear coarse black stuff, and their linen is not much better than canvas; and the greater the quality, the coarser are the mourning weeds. When the king dies, he is laid on a bed of state; and a certain number of senators, ecclesiastical and temporal, are appointed to attend his corpse. The republic defrays the funeral expences out of the revenue of the crown. The queen has the same honours paid her, when she dies, as the king; and all the senators, deputies, &c. that repair to the diet for the election of a king, must wear black at that time.

The laws of Poland decree the estate of the father to be equally divided among the children, except any of them go into a monastery; in which case their parts are divided among the rest; and the younger children here, as in other popish countries, are encouraged by their parents to take the vow upon them, that their estates may be preserved entire to the eldest son.

They hunt bulls and bears, in the following manner: They surround their wild bulls with a great number of horsemen, of whom every one rides up and darts an arrow at him; upon which the creature pursues him, during which another darts him behind: whereupon he faces about to pursue the latter; and thus by turns they so harass him, that the beast being quite tired with pursuing so many assailants, falls down, and is easily taken. Another way of taking them is by felling a great number of trees, and thereby inclosing them, when each hunter, having his post, throws darts at him; and as the bull runs towards his enemy, the hunter from behind gives him his death wound: but if he breaks through the inclosure, the next hunter holds out a piece of red cloth, against which the beast having an antipathy, he forthwith leaves that person, and runs at another, who, being provided for him, commonly kills him.

When they go a hunting for bears, they take those of the biggest size with nets; and, when they have hampered him, all the hunters ride about him, and having pinned down his head and feet with great wooden forks, they so bind him about with strong hempen cords, that he is not able to stir; then they roll him into a great wooden chest. The knots of the cords are so contrived, that with one pull they may be untied. The bear is kept thus till they have a mind to hunt him, and then they let him out of a trap-door made to confine him in.

With respect to the constitution and government of Poland, it may be justly remarked, that since its dismemberment, no regular form of government can be said to exist in that unhappy country, for the three partitioning powers, who act in concert, direct every thing as they think proper, while the king of Poland, the senate and diet, are only the tools to execute what these command.

This government was once one of the freest and most regular imaginable, though at present it is one of the most tyrannical and oppressive: the present constitution is the only perfect remains of the Celtic government, which was the union of a republic with regal dignity. Every gentleman has a right to give his voice at the election of a king, and even to be elected himself; but this is one of the sources of all their evils, and of the vitiated state of their present government. The throne, since the extinction of the family of the Jagellons, has been always put up to the best bidder; and it has often been sold to strangers, as few of the Poles have been rich enough to buy it.

They have no written laws prior to the reign of Casimir the Great, in the fourteenth century; before which time they were governed by the customs of their ancestors: but he introduced the Magdeburg laws, now called the consti-

tution of Poland: some of the provinces, particularly those of the royal and ducal Prussias, have still their own municipal laws, as have likewise Lithuania, Volhinia, and Prussia.

As to their form of government, the Poles live under one head, who bears the title, and lives in the splendour becoming a king; but if we consider his power as being circumscribed within very narrow bounds, he is in effect no more than the prime or chief regent in a free commonwealth.

Civil and criminal courts are held, as usual, in Poland, for the administration of justice; but the most considerable are the parliaments, composed of a certain number of gentlemen, clergy, and laity, who are chosen in each palatinate; the lay-members once in four years, and the ecclesiastical once in two years. Of these parliaments, there are two for the kingdom, and one for the duchy; those for the kingdom sit at Lublin in Upper, and Petricow in Lower Poland: and that for the duchy is held one year at Vilna, and the other at Minski, or Novogrodec, by turns. There lies no appeal from these courts, except to the king and senate; but they receive appeals from the inferior courts.

A Polish king can neither marry, nor divorce a wife, without consent of the republic. If he marries after his coronation, the queen cannot be crowned without his asking their consent, nor even then, unless she be a Roman catholic. When she is to be crowned, the king must conduct her to the church, and present her to the archbishop of Gnesna, or the bishop, who anoints her with the consecrated oil, and puts the crown upon her head, the sceptre into her right hand, and the globe of gold into her left. The queens of Poland have no officers but a marshal and a chancellor, neither of whom are senators, but only judges of the differences that happen among her domesticks. They answer the harangues that are made to the queen when an ambassador makes her a compliment in his master's name, or when a present is made to her at the marriage of a maid of honour. The king furnishes the queen with money to defray the charge of her household; but after his death she must maintain herself, and all her retinue, with the revenue which the king bestows upon her, with the consent of the republic, both for her dowry, and for her marriage-present. These revenues are called the Reformation, and consist of the reversion of a certain number of starosties, which she cannot enjoy till they become vacant by the death of the present possessors: so that a queen of Poland is frequently kept from her estate till she be just ready to leave it; for sometimes those who possess the starosties that are in her Reformation, outlive her: but if the king dies before the queen's Reformation be settled upon her, the republic allows her a yearly pension out of the lands belonging to the crown.

The king's titles are, king of Poland, great duke of Lithuania, duke of Russia, Prussia, Massovia, Samogitia, Kiovia, Volhinia, Podolia, Podlachia, Livonia, Smolensko, Severia and Czernichovia. All his revenue is clear to himself; for he pays no troops, not even his own guards; all the public expences being provided for by the senate; and all the officers of the household are Polish gentlemen, who serve without salary, in expectation of some lucrative employment.

Notwithstanding the limitations of the king's power, as in the Pacta Conventa, &c. he can remit fines and capital punishments; and, upon invasions or rebellions, can summon the nobility to his standard. He can enlist mercenary troops, create officers of the militia, disband armies, and punish those who transgress their duty. He appoints the governors and magistrates of towns, makes archbishops, bishops, abbots, palatines, castellans, marshals, counsellors, and treasurers; who are all senators. He also appoints judges and magistrates of the provinces, secretaries, masters of requests, and all superior and inferior officers of the court. He can ennoble plebeians who signalize themselves either in peace or war, and grant the usage and occupation of royal castles, towns, and villages, to such as deserve well of himself and the republic. He disposes of the estates of those who are proscribed, or die without heirs. All the laws, leagues, negotiations, and embassies, must be in his name, and pass under his seal; as do all letters patent, &c.

The Polish senate is composed of sixteen bishops, besides the primate, who is chief, and about one hundred and thirty laymen named by the king, and are for life; viz. the ten great officers of state of the kingdom of Poland, and duchy of Lithuania; to whom are added, the palatines and the lesser senators, who are the castellans and lieutenants of the palatinates, and the deputies of the nobility.

bility. They are created by the king, after they have taken an oath to preserve the liberties of the republick, by virtue whereof they controul the king, when he invades their privileges: and as this court is looked upon to be the bulwark of the commonwealth, against the attempts of the king, therefore four of the senators are always about his person, on pretence of being his counsellors, though, in truth, they are but spies on him.

None of the senators can go out of the kingdom without leave of the republick, not even for change of air, or to drink the waters, &c. for their health. In the general diets, they sit on the right and left hand of the king, according to their dignity, and not according to the seniority of their reception; and they, with the king, approve and ratify all the constitutions which the nobility propose to them by their deputies: so that the senators are, as it were, mediators between the king and the nobility, to preserve and defend the authority of the state.

In Poland there are but sixteen bishopricks, of which, Smolensko and Kiovia are usurped by the Moscovites, and Caminieć by the Turks; but they are generally of a vast extent, and endowed with great revenues, as may be easily believed, when it is considered that this kingdom, after all its losses, is as big as France.

There are thirty-six chief secular senators; viz. thirty-two palatines, who are, properly, governors of provinces; three castellans, viz. of Cracow, Vilna, and Troki; and the starosta of Samogitia. It is observed by M. Hauteville, that though the quality of castellan and starosta is inferior to that of palatine; these four last mentioned possess almost the first rank among the lay-senators. The office of a palatine is, to lead the troops of his palatinate to the army, to preside in the assemblies of the nobility in his province, to set a price upon goods and merchandize, to see that the weights and measures be not altered, and to judge and defend the Jews. He has a vice-palatine under him, who must take an oath to him, and who ought to have an estate in land, which they call 'Possessionatus,' or a possessor.

The next in dignity to the palatines are the castellans, and there are two sorts of them in the kingdom, who are usually distinguished by the title of great castellans, and petty or sub-castellans. The number of the former, both in the kingdom and dutchy, amounts to thirty-two; and that of the latter to forty-nine; and they are all senators, lieutenants, or deputies of the palatines, and heads of the nobility, in their respective jurisdictions.

There are two kinds of Polish diets, which are either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary diets meet every second year, but the extraordinary diets only upon particular occasions, when summoned by the king. They sit but six weeks, and the dissenting voice impedes the passing of any law, or coming to any final resolution concerning what hath been proposed by the throne. Here are not only diets, but dietines or provincial diets; and when the nobility enter into an association, either during an interregnum, or while the king is living, it is termed a confederacy.

In this country, every gentleman is a sovereign prince in his own estate, and has power of life and death over his tenants, who are perfect slaves, without laws or privileges to protect them. They dare not leave their master's lands to go to another's, unless he violate their wives or daughters; so that they are often glad of that plea. If a gentleman actually kills one of his own slaves, he only pays fifteen livres; and if he kill another's, he is only obliged to furnish another, or as much money as will buy one, and to maintain the deceased's family. If one gentleman kill another, he cannot be executed without the king's consent; so that they frequently escape.

No soldiers can be quartered upon the gentry; and if any officer do it, he is sentenced to die, or else declared infamous by the diet: nor can the king himself lodge at a nobleman's house, without asking his leave. Mean time, their houses are such sanctuaries for delinquents, that though they may be arrested there, they cannot be taken from thence without the master's leave. By the constitution of Poland, the gentry cannot be arrested till convicted by justice; so that he must be first summoned to the tribunal, where he is to be tried: if he does not appear, he is declared contumacious; and if he does appear, and is convicted, he is then arrested, and imprisoned, in order to be afterwards sentenced, according to the laws, and the nature of his crime. If a foreigner die without issue, his estate falls not to the king, but to the lord of the manor.

The product of the gentry's lands may be exported, without paying custom; and his certificate, upon oath, exempts the purchaser from paying it. The nobility have

also the right of pre-emption; and both they, and the gentry, are reckoned equal by birth: so that they do not value titles of honour, but think that of a 'noble Pole,' or 'gentleman of Poland,' the greatest they can have. Nor have they any but what is given by foreign powers, for which the persons are rather despised than esteemed by the rest, who say that it is only intrinsic merit, and services done to their country, that deserve preferment. Neither the king nor the republic confer the title of prince on any but the sons of the royal family; and though five or six of the chief families have, perhaps, the title of princes of the empire; it gives them no sort of precedence.

When their gentry travel into France or Germany, they assume the title of counts and barons, that they may have the easier access to persons of quality, especially in Germany; where they scarce think any a gentleman under a baron, and, consequently, not worthy of their conversation. They never had any order of knighthood before that of the Immaculate Conception, erected by Sigismund III. with some privileges above the rest of the gentry; who so much despised it, that the order soon came to nothing. King Augustus, in 1705, created that called the order of the White Eagle, in remembrance of his happily meeting the diet in Lithuania, when the Swedes and Stanislaus thought to have intercepted him. The badge is a white eagle, crowned with diamonds; and the motto, Pro Fide, Lege, & Rege: 'For the Faith, the Laws, and the King.' He conferred it on several lords, but the senators are distinguished by wearing a golden cross, with the badge and motto in the middle of it. His late majesty, on the twenty-sixth of September, O. S. 1736, (which was the anniversary of his birth) created eight knights of a new order, in honour of St. Henry, of which he assumed the title of grand master. The badge of this order is a red star with eight points, in the middle of which there is a representation of the emperor Henry, with these letters, A. III. R. In the middle of the reverse is this motto, 'Pietate & Virtute Bellica'; and upon each ray or point, appears the electoral sword of Saxony. The star is appendant, by a silver string, to a ribband of crimson velvet.

Many of the gentry have such large territories, that they can raise from five thousand to ten thousand men each, and maintain them; which makes them so proud, that when great mens law-suits are decided by the diet, or other tribunal, the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the grandees sometimes raise five or six thousand men of a side, plunder and burn one another's towns, besiege castles, and fight it out, rather than submit to the sentence of a bench of judges. They esteem themselves, especially the senators, above any German prince; and want nothing of sovereign power but the liberty of coining money, which is reserved to the republick. They have from five to thirty leagues of land, contiguous; but the poor gentry have their votes in the diet as well as the richest. Some of them are hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king cannot interfere.

In treating of the commerce, trade, manufactures, &c. of Poland, it may not be improper previously to observe, that not only the laws of the state, but even the dispositions of the people, are diametrically opposite to commercial improvements; hence it is no wonder that in such a country the manufactures are badly conducted, trade neglected, and commerce absurdly regulated.

By the fundamental laws of the state, no merchant or manufacturer is at liberty to purchase any landed estate, or to acquire any real property in the kingdom; and the pride and arrogance of the nobility and clergy are such, that they look on those useful members of society with the greatest contempt, and will, in many respects, scarcely give them the preference to their slaves. Hence it is that their manufactures are in such an unimproved state, and that all their inland commerce is carried on by Jews and foreigners, who take every opportunity to cheat and over-reach those who are supporting them.

A learned writer remarks, that "the measure which the king of Prussia has lately taken to distress Dantzick, and interrupt the exportation of the natural production of Poland, will not at all answer the end which he has proposed: this prince may be a great general as well as a tyrant, but he is not a great politician; acts of violence will never make his subjects enter into commerce, nor force the Poles, and the inhabitants of Dantzick, to commit all their property to his direction. If the other states of Europe suffer him to conquer this city, he may then obtain the end which he proposed, namely, the being master of all the exports of Great Poland, and of regulating the price

price of the grain of that kingdom as he thinks proper ; but as long as this post continues free, he will never be able to carry his point.

" In the treaty of commerce which the king has lately concluded with the republic of Poland, it is stipulated, that all the merchandize imported from the towns of Prussia into Poland, is only to pay two per cent. duty, but such merchandize as is landed at Dantzick, and from thence brought into Poland, is to pay twelve per cent. It will appear, at first sight, that the Poles were forced into this treaty, otherwise they would never give the preference to strangers, who were taking every measure to oppress them ; but still it will not answer the king of Prussia's design. Dantzick is an excellent port, and there is a navigation by the Vistula from thence to the interior parts of the kingdom, whereby all kinds of merchandize may be imported and exported with great facility. It is true, that as the Vistula passes through Prussia, the king may lay a heavy duty upon such merchandize, and thereby distress the Poles, Dantzickers, Hollanders, and all who are concerned in this trade, but as he has no good sea-port, which has a communication with the Vistula, his subjects must pass by the port of Dantzick, or they will never be able to import and export heavy merchandize to and from Poland, without the greatest inconveniences."

It is not easy to ascertain the revenues of Poland, as they fluctuate according to the resolutions of various diets. The royal revenues accrue from certain lands vested in the crown, from the different custom-houses of the kingdom, and from salt-works. But since the dismemberment of the kingdom, the salt-works, and some of the crown-lands, have been seized by the late empress-queen of Hungary, many of the custom-houses by the king of Prussia, and a few of the crown-lands, with the customs of Mohilow, by the empress of Russia ; therefore it must be left to some future diet, and the permission of the partitioning powers, to appoint from henceforth the establishment of the crown revenue.

The nobility, by the ancient laws of Poland, were, upon extraordinary occasions, to take the field on horseback, together with their adherents ; and when this rule was properly carried into execution, a body of an hundred thousand men might be raised. This army was always called the *pospolite* ; but, from a variety of causes, it usually moved with great difficulty, and was generally without discipline, subordination, or experience ; but the Polish army, of late years, hath not been so numerous. Previous to the late dismemberment, the peace-establishment was thirty-six thousand men ; that is, twenty-four thousand for Poland, and twelve thousand for Lithuania, two-thirds of which were cavalry.

The two bodies of troops that form the Polish army are commanded by two generals, who are independent of each other ; and though they are named by the king, they are not obliged to give an account of their operations but to the republic, and have an absolute authority over the troops. The colonels are likewise absolute masters of their regiments, and it is their business to find subsistence for them and to pay them as well as they can ; but being rarely paid themselves, they destroy the country, and ruin the farmers, to satisfy their avarice and the demands of their troops.

The Polish nobility appear with more magnificence in the field than in their towns ; their tents are more elegantly ornamented than their houses. The cavalry, which is the greatest part of the army, is chiefly composed of gentlemen ; they have fine horses, and their saddles, bridles, &c. are richly ornamented. The very contrast to their cavalry is their infantry ; for as the former is magnificently ornamented, the latter is badly clothed, badly armed, and without any uniforms ; this corps is recruited from among the meanest of the people, and they resemble an army of vagabond Tartars. The Polish troops have but very little discipline among them : they attack with great fury, but if they are repulsed, they immediately retire with great precipitation, and it is impossible to rally them afterwards.

The members of the diet have lately agreed continually to support an army of thirty thousand men, for the defence of those parts of the kingdom which the partitioning powers have still suffered them to retain ; and that the troops which compose this army shall be better disciplined, more regularly paid, and also placed upon a footing superior to what hath ever yet been known in Poland. For the payment of this army, the support of civil government, and other contingencies, they have likewise come to the resolution of regularly taxing spirituous liquors, so-

reign merchandize, stamped papers, salt, chimnies, playing cards, and all kinds of luxuries. They have likewise doubled the poll-tax upon the Jews. The starosties, who heretofore paid but one quarter of their revenues annually, must now pay three-eighths ; and the clergy are now assessed in proportion to the other classes of people, though they had always hitherto found means to exempt themselves from paying taxes.

Their trade, of which we have already mentioned the chief exports and imports, is carried on chiefly by foreign merchants residing here ; for the gentry are absolutely forbid to follow trade of any kind, on pain of forfeiting their honour ; at the same time the commonality want funds, and the spirit of industry as well as an inclination to manufactures ; insomuch that their cloaths are all made abroad, or by merchant taylors who travel to noblemen's houses. Besides, such of the Poles as have any fortunes, spend too much of their revenues in costly habits, and other articles of luxury, to be able to undertake any considerable traffic ; nor have they any good port, except Dantzick, for improving the trade of so large a country ; and, indeed, for want of necessary improvement in general, and not so much from the nature of the soil, the inland communication is also very bad.

The Polish current gold coin is ducats, worth two French crowns ; and two silver coins, of a base alloy, one called the *tinfe*, a little larger than the French fifteen-pence, and the *choustack*, of which three make a *tinfe*.

The inns here are only long stables built up with boards, and covered with straw. They have windows, but no furniture. There are chambers at one end, but so annoyed with vermin and stench, that strangers chuse rather to lodge in stables among the horses, or in the common room, which is the only part where they have a fire ; but if it be a holiday, they can expect no rest ; for the boors spend the whole day, and night too, in drinking, singing, dancing, and such like kind of merriment.

It appears from the relations of the most intelligent travellers who have lately visited Poland, that the kingdom in general hath for many ages been miserably neglected by its legislators, and that the present spirit of improvement hath unfortunately been exerted too late. A gentleman who was in this country not long since, has observed, that if the Poles had agreed to a plan of this kind some years before, they might in all probability have saved their country, and made a respectable figure among the states of Europe ; but now it is too late ; their best provinces are seized upon by strangers, and all their operations are dictated by those powers which united to annihilate their ancient form of government ; and as these great powers have guarantied to each other respectively the several districts which they have seized in Poland, there seems no possibility that the Poles will ever be able to recover themselves, in the present situation of things : time alone must determine how far some future arrangement of the political affairs of Europe may change their unhappy state.

S E C T. V.

Containing the History of POLAND; the civil Dissentions in that Country ; and an Account of the late Claims made by the several Northern Powers, to the Territories of that Kingdom.

HISTORIANS relate, that the Poles were antiently a tribe of Scythians, who lived in tents or covered waggon, rambling from one country to another, till Lechus, their first sovereign we read of, taught them to build towns, of which Gnesna, in the province of Great Poland, was the first. Their records are obscure and unsatisfactory till towards the close of the fourteenth century.

Jagellon, grand duke of Lithuania, who became king of Poland by marrying the daughter and heiress of Lewis then king, annexed his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which rendered his name so dear to the Poles, that they decreed the crown to be hereditary in his family ; his descendants possessed it for a century and an half, when the male-line being extinct in 1572, in the person of Sigismund Augustus, two competitors arose, Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France ; and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed, and Henry became king of Poland ; but his brother dying four months after his accession to the throne, he quitted it to take possession of France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. Maximilian then renewed his attempts ; but Stephen Batori, prince of Transilvania, secured to himself the election by marrying Anne, the sister

of Sigismund Augustus, of the royal house of Jagellon. This prince died in 1586. The Poles then chose Sigismund, son of John king of Sweden, for their king, who soon after was deprived of his Swedish dominions, which he attempted to recover without effect: his long reign was spent in wars with the Swedes, Russians, and Turks, which all terminated to the disadvantage of the Poles. This prince died in 1632, and Uladislaus his son succeeded him.

During the remainder of the seventeenth century the Poles were engaged in destructive wars, at one time with the Cossacs in the Ukraine, then with the Russians in Lithuania, which was followed by a rupture with Charles X. of Sweden, who ravaged Great and Little Poland. The Turks too invaded the province of Podolia, and became masters of the strong fortresses of Caminiec: their successes compelled the Poles to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. The intrepidity of John Sobieski who commanded the Polish troops, recovered the declining credit of his country. As a reward for his services he was chosen king in 1676, soon after which he compelled the Turks to remit the tribute exacted from Poland. This great man died in 1696, not before he had experienced the most ungrateful returns from the senate, as well as from the emperor Leopold, whom he had laid under the greatest obligations by driving the Turks out of Hungary, and obliging them to raise the siege of Vienna.

Upon the death of Sobieski great distractions arose in Poland on the choice of a new king. Such was the prevalent venality of the times, that the crown was in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, had fairest for obtaining it, but Augustus, elector of Saxony, bore away the prize, and supported by an army of Saxons, was crowned at Cracow in 1699. Augustus supported himself on the throne by the help of a Saxon army, and closed a long and unquiet reign by death in 1733. His son, Augustus II. was destined to the succession by the combined force of Saxony and Russia; while France procured the election of Stanislaus to the throne, which was soon after set aside in favour of Augustus. This prince was driven from his Saxon dominions by the king of Prussia; he died at Dresden in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski, born January 17, 1732, was chosen with uncommon unanimity king of Poland, September 7, 1764. The personal merit of this nobleman, and the disgust which the Poles had conceived against their Saxon alliance, induced them to accede to this choice, although his birth and fortune gave him no claim to such a dignity.

A diet which met in 1767 seemed to treat their complaints with greater moderation, which gave flattering expectations of those unhappy dissensions being at length appeased. The secret causes which obstructed these effects, cannot be certainly traced, but some speculating politicians do not scruple to charge the king of Prussia with having privately promoted the violent measures afterwards taken by the dissidents, as well as with encouraging the rancorous severity with which the governing powers proceeded against them. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom; for from the authority which a powerful army conferred, the Russian ambassador became in reality king of Poland, and every commander of a party, whether Russian or confederate, was an absolute and arbitrary despot, so far as the force in his hands was capable of extending his power. This unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The miserable Poles in this extremity threw themselves upon the Turks for protection.

The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in distinct provinces, which at length became only distinguished by the general confederacy of the states, and that of the dissidents: and soon after a thorough union and coalition took place between those two; against the Russians, and the adherents to the governing powers. The most active of these confederacies was that formed at Bar in Podolia. Poland continued to groan under the calamities of a war carried on in her best provinces, and supported by devastations on her natives: at once enduring foreign cruelty and oppression, and convulsed in every part by the domestic rage of her citizens: to these complicated evils however were added in 1770, that most dreadful scourge the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; in these provinces it is said to have swept off two hundred and fifty thousand of the people.

The firmness which the confederates still continued to maintain notwithstanding the frequent losses, defeats, and slaughters which they sustained, shews how much they execrated the Russian controul. In 1771 their exhausted strength seems to have been recruited by some secret supplies; which it is probable that the views of France might lead her to advance, and this seems more probable from the number of French officers who engaged as volunteers in the service; by which means discipline was introduced, and the struggle became less unequal. To crush this renewed strength, an army of Austrians, and another of Prussians entered the country from different frontiers. Cracow was surrendered to the former of these powers, they likewise seized the royal salt mines of Wiebicka, Bochinia, and some other places, from whence the king's private revenue was principally drawn: the Prussians at the same time cut off the remainder of it which arose from the duties in Royal Prussia. The king of Prussia was the first who threw off the mask, by distinguishing the country which he had possessed himself of, by the name of New Prussia.

Manifestoes were delivered at Warsaw by the Russian, Prussian, and Austrian ministers in September 1772, wherein they declare their intentions, and soon after specify the countries which they had agreed respectively to appropriate. In the specifications delivered by the court of Vienna, the empress queen takes the countries contained within the following limits as a portion equivalent to her pretended rights in Poland. All that lies on the right side of the Vistula, from the duchy of Silesia above Sandomir to the mouth of the river San; and from thence along Tarnopol to Zamoise and Rubieszow up to the river Bog, crossing the Bog, and going along the proper frontiers of Red Russia to where the frontiers of Volhinia and Podolia meet at Zabraz, from thence in a straight line to the river Niester, taking in that small part of Podolia which is cut by the little river Podhorze to its influx into the Niester: and so on to the bounds which separate Pocutia from Moldavia. Soon after the empress queen extended her claims to the remainder of the palatinate of Cracovia, and of the whole of that of Sandomir, on the left side of the Vistula; and on the side of Podolia to within a few miles of Caminiec. By this transaction the house of Austria becomes possessed of two-thirds of the upper Poland, the provinces of Red Russia and Pocutia, together with a part of Podolia, if not of Volhinia, containing in a direct line, from the borders of Silesia, west, to the district of Caminiec, east, an extent of country considerably more than three hundred English miles, and in its greatest breadth, from the Crapach mountains, which divide Pocutia from Moldavia on the south, to the borders of Lithuania in the north, of not less than two hundred, forming a vast extent of frontier, along the borders of Silesia, Hungary, Moldavia and Transylvania.

In the next place, the empress of Russia, by way of indemnification and exchange for divers ancient rights, and just and indisputable pretensions, seizes on the following provinces and people, whom she incorporates for ever with her empire, viz. all Polish Livonia; that part of the palatinate of Poloczko situate on the right of the Dwina, or Duna; all the palatinate of Witepsk, on both sides of that river; all the palatinate of Mischlaw; the upper part of the palatinate of Minsk, along an imaginary line to the source of the Druetz; and also the lower part of the same province, which extends on the other side of the Druetz and the Nieper. Though these limits take in a vast extent of country, comprehending, besides Polish Livonia, about one half of the great duchy of Lithuania, it is said, that the usurpation of this side has been since much increased, and now includes the country between the Berezina and the Nieper rivers.

The specifications of the king of Prussia were issued under the title of letters patent, in which he claims the duchy of Pomerelia in Pomerania as the descendant from the house of Stettin, to whom these districts of right belonged. To this end he therefore seizes all that part of Great Poland situated on this side of the Nottee; and also, all the territories of Prussia and Pomerania on this, and on the other side of the Vistula, which the kings of Poland have hitherto possessed under the name of Polish Prussia; excepting only Dantzick and Thorn. About a month after these manifestoes a counter-declaration was delivered from the king and his reduced senate at Warsaw. After expatiating pathetically upon the five years of scourge and desolation which have ruined the country, whole miseries arose in proportion to the interposition of foreign courts, the number of their troops, and the length of time



Curious prospect of an ICEBERG in the ISLAND of SPITSBERGEN.

Page 72 sculp.

time which they were in it, every argument is made use of in opposition to the present measures, which reason and justice can urge, against force and injustice. The rights of the republic are rested upon long and uninterrupted possession, avowed and maintained by the most solemn treaties, and guaranteed by the greatest powers in Europe; all which are particularly pointed out.

The question is then put, what titles the three powers can oppose, to rights so long established, and fixed upon such authentic and solid foundations? If there are titles dug out of the obscurity of antient times, those times of sudden and momentary revolutions, which erected and destroyed, ceded and restored states, in a few months or years; such titles, if admitted, would re-unite to Poland many provinces which formerly belonged to her, but which have been for many years cupied by the very powers who make these pretensions. And that as it is undeniable, that all transactions are annihilated by subsequent stipulations, and as all the latter stipulations between Poland and her neighbours oppose directly the partition they now would make, it follows, that the titles on which that partition is founded, cannot be admitted without undermining the rights of every state, and shaking every throne from its foundation.

These representations had no effect on the parties to which they were addressed, for they proceeded to call upon the inhabitants of their newly acquired territories to take oaths of allegiance to them on a day specified, threatening them with pains and penalties in case of refusal or neglect thereof. It is said that the partitioning powers have a design of forming part of Poland into an hereditary kingdom, with which the present king is to be invested. Such is the present unnatural alliance between three powerful northern states. The balance of power has sometimes armed Europe when it was really in no danger; but now that the northern powers seem leagued against the southern, no one appears alarmed. However, future ages will certainly regard this measure with the greatest indignation, those who projected it with horror, and those who acquiesced in it with contempt; and the more so, as those very sovereigns, who have been so liberal in their professions of friendship, are the persons who have jointly invaded the unhappy kingdom of Poland, distressed its inhabitants, seized on its most valuable revenues, dismembered its palatinates, duchies, &c. and partitioned out some of its richest provinces among themselves.

C H A P. VII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

GROENLAND OR GREENLAND.

SECT. I.

Describing the Situation and Climate of GREENLAND, with its Produce, and various Kinds of Fish.

THE full extent and dimensions of Greenland, are entirely unknown. The most southerly part lies in the fifty-ninth degree fifty minutes north latitude, from whence the coast stretches to the north-west beyond the seventy-eighth degree of north latitude, while the eastern coast reaches, according to the Danish writers, to the eighty-second. The west coast was first discovered in 1585 by Mr. John Davis, an Englishman, from whom the streights that run between the continent of North America and Greenland are called, after his name, Davis's Streights.

The eastern and southern coasts abound with vast flakes of ice, and these are driven from Spitzberg, by a very strong current, towards the south.

The east side of Greenland, which is opposite to Iceland, is at present inaccessible, on account of the mountains of ice, which rise to an astonishing height, and cover the sea: this part is therefore unknown; but sailing between these and Iceland, several adventurers have safely arrived there; and this course in particular has been actually steered by the Dutch.

The west side of Greenland towards Davis's Streights, is, however, better known. On that side the coast is defended by rocks and several large and small islands. It has also wide and deep bays, which run a great way into the land, some of which are the mouths of large rivers, and others form good roads and harbours. The main land consists of little more than confused heaps of rocks, the summits of which, and also some of the vallies, are always covered with ice and snow.

As far as the Danish colonies have penetrated, the climate is not insupportable; but the weather is very changeable and unsettled. During the summer season, which lasts from the end of May to the middle of September, the sun shines bright and very warm, and on the main land, above which no cloud can be seen, the weather is very pleasant and always clear; but a cold damp fog that intercepts the sun-beams continually hovers over the islands, except in the month of August, which is the only time in the whole year when the vapours are dissolved. The rains that fall here are

neither frequent nor heavy. In this climate it seldom thunders; and storms, which are very rare, are of no long continuance; but the most violent gusts of wind come from the south.

The winters, as far as the sixty-fourth degree of latitude, are generally reckoned by the Danes and Norwegians pretty temperate, to which the calm and clear weather may greatly contribute. But when a north-east wind blows, which comes from mountains covered with ice and snow, it is extremely severe; the air being thick and filled with clouds of icy particles, which cause a most piercing frost. The snow falls in less quantities in that part of Greenland known to the Danes, than it does in Norway; for in the former, especially near the rivers in the inland parts, the snow does not exceed half an ell in depth.

We must, however, confine this account of the weather to the southern parts of this country subject to the Danes; for to the northward of the sixty-eighth degree of latitude the cold is in winter so excessive, that the most spirituous liquors, as French brandy, &c. will freeze near the fire side. As the weather is in this climate very calm, the ice in the bays between the islands is not disturbed till the end of August; and even in the creeks it does not begin to thaw till the close of May, when it is gradually washed away by the agitation of the waves. From June to August the sun is continually above the horizon, and consequently during that time they have no night; but in winter the sun is invisible to the Greenlanders, and their day is nothing more than the morning and evening twilight, which do not last above two hours.

The soil in the vallies and plains consists of moor and turf land, and in some few spots, particularly in the south parts, in about sixty-one degrees of latitude, grow angelica, scurvy-grass, wild rosemary, some good esculent herbs, and also fine grass with yellow flowers, the roots of which smell in the spring like roses. Indeed that part of the country which lies between the sixtieth and sixty-fourth degree of latitude has the best soil; so that in some places cabbages and turnips thrive very well, and the latter are remarkably sweet. There is not a tree of any kind to be seen in the country except on the sides of a bay, sixty Norway miles to the south of Hope-colony, where a little coppice of birch-trees grow: but their trunks are no thicker than a man's leg. Some shrubs are dispersed here and

and there ; as small juniper, gooseberry and bilberry bushes, brambles, and the like.

It is not yet known what minerals are contained in the Greenland mountains ; but there are rocks, from which considerable quantities of asbestos have been hewn. Some mountains also consist of an imperfect kind of variegated marble, of which kettles, and other utensils, are made by the inhabitants.

Some hares are found on the main land ; but these, which are very small, are grey in summer, and perfectly white in winter. Here is also a species of rein-deer ; but they are very different from those of Lapland. The foxes are white, brown, and grey, but small. White bears are sometimes found here and are very numerous towards the north ; but the Greenlanders are very daring and active in destroying them ; these differ from the bears of other countries, their heads being long like that of a wolf, which they much resemble in form.

Dogs are the only domestic animals in this country ; they never bark, but snarl and howl ; are timorous, and unfit for the chase ; yet if not tamed when young, become wild and very mischievous. The Greenlanders kill and eat these dogs, and also use them to draw their sledges, yoking four, six, and sometimes eight or ten to a sledge, laden with five or six of the largest seals, with the master sitting upon them, who drives as fast with them as we can do with good horses : for they often travel sixty miles in a winter's day upon the ice. They have no beetles, rats, mice, &c. and neither snakes or any other venomous creatures can live in this climate.

Musketoos, or gnats, swarm here, and are extremely troublesome, but they have neither ants nor bees. Their land-fowl are, the ryer, a sort of large parrot, which is grey in summer, and white in winter ; but builds his nest very high in the clefts of the rocks ; they have also eagles, falcons, large speckled owls, ravens, different sorts of sparrows, and all kinds of land and sea fowl known in Norway are seen in amazing numbers.

The rivers afford plenty of trout, cray-fish, and salmon ; and the sea yields an inexhaustible variety of all kinds of fish, except oysters ; but it abounds with excellent mussels, and very large shrimps or prawns. The smaller species of fish are dried here for winter store, especially the lodden, a sort of small herring. Here are also great plenty of cod, haddock, thornback, and the holy-butt, by some called the turbot of the north, which is so big that it will fill a large cask. The fresh water in Greenland has been highly recommended for its salubrity and palatableness.

Their seas, like other parts of the northern ocean, that lie under the north pole, contain a very great number of the largest species of fish, particularly whales, which there swim in vast shoals. In these regions the beneficent Creator has dealt out their food with a liberal hand, and of all climates this is the best adapted to their hot constitutions and enormous bodies, which are as it were inclosed in fat. This species of fish differs from all other kinds in many particulars ; for in their internal parts they resemble land animals. They breathe with lungs, and consequently cannot remain long under water. They also copulate like quadrupeds, bring forth their young alive, and suckle them with their milk.

They have several kinds of whales, which may be divided into such as have apertures in the head, and such as have nostrils for respiration. Some of the former have two holes or apertures ; as the whale properly so called, the fin-fish, &c. others have only one, as the cachellotte, or spermaceti whale : but those that respire through the nostrils are seldom to be met with. This species of whales may also be divided into those that have plain, and those that have prominent backs. The fins of other fish consist of bones, or cartilages fastened together by their membranes running between them ; but the whale has articular bones, like the fingers of a human hand, with their proper ligaments covered with a thick skin like that of the other parts of its body. By means of this mechanism the whale can move and turn about with greater ease than he could with fins of the common form, and secure himself from falling precipitately upon the rocks when he dives to the bottom of the sea ; for which end he lays his thick tail horizontally on the surface of the water, which is of great service to him on this occasion.

The species of Greenland whale with a flat back is thick and unweildy, its head taking up one third part of its bulk. These are from sixty to seventy feet in length, the fins on their sides from five to eight feet ; and the tail, which is in a horizontal position, or bent a little upwards on both

sides, is from three to four fathoms broad. When the whale is in danger, he turns up his side, and brandishes his tail, which it is dangerous to approach. The tail also serves him for an oar, with which he rows himself forward with surprising swiftness. The skin of the back is black and smooth, but in some places variegated or marbled. Next to the skin, which is not thicker than strong writing paper, or thin parchment, is the rind, which is near an inch thick ; and between this and the flesh lies the fat, to the thickness of nine, and sometimes twelve inches. Under the fat is the flesh, which is dry and very red. In its upper jaw, on both sides, are the spicula or whalebone, which serves him for teeth ; and the largest of these, which are placed in the middle, are seven or eight feet in length, and sometimes more. On each side are generally two hundred and fifty of these spicula, so that they amount in all to five hundred. The tongue is very fat ; and so large, that it fills several casks. The eyes of a whale, which are no bigger than those of an ox, are in the hind part of the head, where it is broadest, and are defended by eyelids and eyebrows. This fish is very quick of hearing, though it has no external ears, and has only a spot under the upper skin behind the eye, and under that spot a narrow duct, which seems to convey the sound to the tympanum or drum. They generally bring forth only one at a birth, though they have sometimes two, and their milk is like that of a cow. Their usual food is that of a small, black, round insect, of about the size of a horse-bean, which abounds in these seas, and of which the whale sucks in prodigious swarms with his mouth, and afterwards grinds them with his spicula.

The nord-caper, so called from the vast number of them seen about the north cape in Norway, is much slenderer and smaller than the whale. The fin-fish equals the whale in length, but not in thickness, and has a fin on his back, from whence he received his name. He is extremely nimble, as well as strong. He throws water higher than a whale of his size, has brown lips, which are twisted like a rope, and his body very much resembles that of a tench in colour.

Here is also the narval, or sea-unicorn, which is chiefly remarkable for its long horn resembling ivory, but is generally more solid and weighty. This fish is smooth like an eel, its colour white sprinkled with black spots, and its eyes small. It has two fleshy fins, and a semicircular hole on the top of its head, from whence it spouts water like a whale. The horn from which it receives its name, grows straight forward from the middle of its upper jaw, is curiously wreathed, and terminates in a point : with this it attacks the largest whale, and can strike with such violence as to pierce the side of a ship.

The last we shall take notice of is the sword-fish, so called from their sharp-pointed upper jaw, which resembles a sword : they pursue whale and fin-fish with great eagerness. They are of a slender form, of various sizes, from three to twenty feet in length, and their eyes stand far out of their head. A few of them will dispatch a large whale ; and they feed chiefly on his tongue, after they have killed him.

The morse and seal are among these amphibious animals. The morse is as large as an English bullock, with four feet, a thick round head, and a short neck, in which lies his principal strength. He has red eyes, small ears, and large nostrils, from whence he spouts water. His skin is very thick, and covered with hair, and from his upper jaw proceed two long teeth as white as snow, and more esteemed than ivory, as they keep their colour better. This creature is very bold, making towards the boat as soon as attacked, and endeavouring to overfet it.

Seals are of the size of a large dog, are mostly black, but some grey, with very fine smooth hairy skins. The old ones make a noise like the howling of dogs, and the young ones like the bleating of lambs. Their head and body are shaped much like those of a dog, whence they are by some called sea-dogs. These are the most serviceable of all animals to the Greenlanders, for their flesh serves them for food, and the skin for cloathing and boats : of its entrails and membranes they make sails and windows ; its ligaments serve them for thread and cords ; and of the bones they make all kinds of domestic utensils and hunting implements.

The catching of seals makes a valuable branch of the fishery practised in these seas ; three hundred seals yield near as much blubber as a middling sized whale. The seals are not killed by the harpoon, but generally knocked on the head with clubs ; and many bears are likewise shot, killed with lances, &c. upon the ice. The ships set sail in

February for the seal-fishing, and in April for the whale-fishery; government allowing a bounty to these ships of forty shillings per ton, as far as three hundred tons, so that a ship of such a burden receives six hundred pounds country money. If a ship is clear of the ice after the first of June, and goes back again, she forfeits her bounty; and also if it is known she carries out with her less than six months provisions.

SECT. II.

Giving a Description of the Inhabitants of GREENLAND, their Language, Dress, Houses, Furniture and Boats: their Method of catching Whales, Seals, &c. with an Account of the Manners, Customs, Religion, and Trade of the People.

THE inhabitants of this country, Greenland, are in general short, but fat, plump, and well proportioned. Their faces are something flat, their hair black and lank, and their complexion of a brownish red. They are strangers to the small-pox, and are seldom afflicted with epidemical diseases; but the scurvy is the reigning distemper, and on this occasion their common remedy is scurvy grass and other simples. They have neither surgeon nor physician among them; but readily rely on certain impostors who pretend to foretell future events, and to be skilled in physic. They have some instances among them of longevity, and these perhaps would be more frequent, were it not for the numberless dangers to which their manner of life exposes them.

There is something very singular in their language, which is difficult to be learnt, and yet is said to have many elegant phrases. The women have a particular manner of pronouncing their words, which generally terminate in an n. Mr. Egede has published a dictionary of their language, and for the instruction of the Greenlanders, the four gospels, with several small tracts, have been translated into the Greenland tongue, and printed at Copenhagen. The Greenland dialect is mostly the same throughout the whole country known to the Danes, except some little difference in the pronunciation.

They dress the skins of their deer, those of seals, and of certain birds, sewed together with the small guts of the seal. There is very little difference between the dress of the two sexes.

The cloathing of the men consists of a coat or jacket, with a cap or hood sewed to it, that covers the head and shoulders. This coat reaches down to the knees. Their breeches are very small, and fit close: and the hair of the skins the coat is made of is turned inward, to keep them warm. Over this coat they put a large frock made of seal-skins, dressed and tanned without the hair, in such a manner as to keep out the water. Between the leathern frock and the under coat they wear a linen shirt, or for want of linen, one made of seals guts, which also helps to keep out the water from the under coat. Those seated near the ports frequented by the Danes and Dutch have shirts of striped linen, with coats and breeches made of red and blue stuffs, which they buy of the Danish or Dutch merchants, but after their own fashion, and these they wear upon extraordinary occasions. Their shoes and boots are made of seal-skins well dressed or tanned. They formerly wore stockings made of rein-deer or seal skins; but now they have worsted stockings of different colours, as white, blue and red, which they buy of the Danes.

The coats worn by the women are higher on the shoulders, and wider than the mens, with higher and larger hoods. The married women who have children have much larger coats than the rest, on account of their carrying their children in them upon their backs, for these are their only swaddling cloaths and cradle. They wear drawers, which reach to the middle of their thigh, and over them breeches, the drawers they keep on day and night; but the breeches, which come down to the knee, they only wear when they go abroad in winter, and as soon as they come home, pull them off. Next to their body they wear a waistcoat made of a young fawn's skin, with the hairy side inward. The coat, or upper-garment, is sometimes made of fine coloured swan-skins, trimmed and edged with white, neatly wrought in the seams and about the edges, which look very well. Their shoes and boots, with little difference, are like those of the men.

Their hair, which is very long and thick, is braided, and tied up in a knot, which becomes them; they commonly go bare-headed, both without and within doors; and in these

southern parts seldom wear their hoods except it rains or snows.

The chief finery of the women consists in wearing glass beads of several colours, corals about their necks and arms, and pendants in their ears; some of them also wear bracelets of black skin set with pearls, with which they adorn their cloaths, and even their shoes. The Greenland women have likewise another more extraordinary kind of embellishment: they make black streaks between their eyes, on their forehead, upon the chin, arms and hands, by passing under the skin a needle and thread made black. Hideous as this renders them in the eyes of strangers, they think it extremely ornamental, and say, that those that do not thus adorn their faces, will have their heads turned into train oil tubs, that shall be placed under the lamps that burn in the land of souls, or departed spirits.

Their habitations are of two kinds, one of which serves for the winter, and the other for the summer season. The winter dwellings are the largest. These are dug deep in the earth, and raised a little above the surface of the ground with stone and turf. In this hut the windows are on one side made of seal-guts dressed and sewed together, or the maws of holybutts, which are white and transparent. On the other sides the beds are placed, which consist of benches made with boards, raised half a yard from the ground. Their bedding consists of the skins of seals and rein-deer. On the hearth is a great lamp in the form of a half moon, and over it are hung their kettles formed of a kind of marble, or, where they have the advantages of trade, of brass or copper, in which they boil their provisions. The entrance is dug narrow and winding underground, and the door so very low, that they must creep on their hands and feet to get in, which is so contrived in order to keep out the cold. The inside is lined with seal-skins. Some of these houses are so large as to afford lodgings for seven or eight families. Upon the benches where their beds are placed, is the seat of the women, who employ their time in sewing and making up cloaths, while the men belonging to the family, or strangers, sit on the opposite side under the windows, upon benches placed there for that purpose.

It is observable, that though in one of these houses there are ten or twenty lamps of train oil kept constantly burning, their smoke is not perceived to fill the room; which is probably owing to the care they take to prevent it. Dry moss rubbed very small is laid on one side of the lamp, which being lighted, burns softly, and if not laid on too thick does not cause any smoke. This fire gives such a heat, that it not only serves to boil their victuals, but also heats their rooms to that degree, that they are as hot as a bagnio; however, to those who are not used to this method, the smell of the house is very disagreeable, as well from the number of burning lamps, all supplied with train oil, as from various sorts of raw meat, fish, and fat, heaped up in these habitations; but their urine tubs in particular emit a very disagreeable stench.

Every master of a family has one of these winter retreats, to which they betake themselves in October, and continue in them till the beginning of May. All the warm part of the year they lodge in tents, which are their summer habitations. These are made of poles set in a circular form, bending to a point at the top, in the form of a sugar-loaf, fenced by a double cover, the innermost of which is of the skins of seals or rein-deer, with the hairy side inward; and the outermost of the same skins, but without hair, and dressed with fat, that they may not be penetrated by the rain. In these tents they have their beds, lamps to dress meat, and a curtain made of the guts of seals, sewed together, through which, instead of windows, they receive the day-light.

These people commonly eat when they have an appetite, but their chief meal is at night; their common food is the flesh of the rein-deer and hares, all kinds of land and water-fowl, seals, several sorts of fresh water and sea-fish, and even some parts of the whale. Their manner of dressing victuals is extremely disgusting. They usually quench their thirst with water, yet can drink a great deal of brandy without being intoxicated; but they are said to prefer the blood of the seals to any other drink.

With respect to their marriages, the chief qualifications required in the bride are skill in domestic affairs; and especially in cutting out and sewing their garments. On the other hand, nothing recommends a suitor more than boldness, activity, and success in fishing and hunting. The bride, at the marriage festivities, puts on a shew of gravity, and a melancholy air. Relations never intermarry here,

not even to the third and fourth degree of consanguinity. They have a respectful idea of marriage, and in general every Greenlander has but one wife. They indulge their children to a culpable excess; letting them do whatever they please, instead of moderately correcting, or checking them for their faults.

Hunting or fishing are the chief employments of the men, for which they have very curious tackle. The boats in which the men row to sea are about six yards long, and only three quarters of an ell broad in the middle, ending in a very sharp point at both extremities. They are made of very thin narrow boards fastened together with whalebone, and covered with seal-skins. Only one man goes out in a boat, the top of which is covered with skin, with only an opening in the middle, which, when the man has entered, is fastened close round his waist, so that no water can enter the boat; and thus equipped, he will row sixty or seventy miles a day, though he has but one oar, which is six or seven feet long, and flat at both ends. These boats are easily upset, which they consider as no great damage, if the owner escapes with his life. The larger sort of boats are chiefly used by women. They have also a kind of open barges, pointed at both ends, but not very deep; these are covered with seal-skins, and are high at the extremities. They make use of them in coasting from one part to another, in conveying their effects in their emigrations, or when they embark for the whale fishery.

The employment of the Greenlanders is for the most part at sea. When they go to catch whales, they put on their best apparel; fancying, that if they were not neatly dressed, the whale would shun them. Upon these occasions, about fifty persons, of both sexes, set out together in one of the large boats. When they have found the whale, they strike him with their harpoons, to which are fastened lines or straps two or three fathoms long, made of seal-skins; at the end of which they tie a bag of a whole seal-skin filled with air like a bladder, that the whale, when he finds himself wounded and flies away, with the harpoon sticking in his body, may be the sooner tired and easily found, the air-bag hindering him from keeping long under water. When he loses strength they attack him with spears and lances till he is killed, and then put on their coats made of dressed seal-skin, with boots, gloves, and caps, laced so tight together, that no water can penetrate them. In this garb they leap into the sea, and begin to slice off the fat all round the body, and are sometimes so daring as to get upon the whale's back, while he is yet alive, in order to make the quicker dispatch in killing him, and cutting away the fat.

Nearly the same method is used in killing the seals, only the harpoon is less, to which is fastened a line of seal-skin, six or seven fathoms long, and at the end of it a bag of seal-skin filled with air, to keep the seal when wounded from escaping by diving: but in the northern parts, where the sea is frozen, they use other methods in catching of seals. They first look out for the holes, which the seals themselves make with their claws, of about the bigness of a halfpenny, that they may fetch their breath. On their finding one of these holes, they seat themselves near it, and as soon as they perceive the seal put his snout to it for air, immediately strike him with a small harpoon, which they have ready in their hand, to which is fastened a strap of a fathom long, which they hold in the other hand. After he is struck, and cannot escape, they cut the hole large enough to bring him up through it, and as soon as they have got his head above the ice, kill him, and then lift him out of the water.

Another way of catching seals, is: they make a large hole in the ice; but in spring they find holes made by the seals themselves, through which they get upon the ice, in order to repose and bask themselves in the sun. Near these holes the fishermen place a low bench, upon which they lie down on their belly, having first made a small hole near the large one, through which they softly let down a pole headed with a harpoon, a strap being fastened to it, which one holds in his hand, while another, lying upon the bench with his face downwards, watches the coming of the seal, which when he perceives, he cries 'Ke,' whereupon the seal is instantly struck by him who holds the pole.

In the spring, when the seals lie upon the ice, near holes which themselves make to get up and down, the Greenlanders, disguised in seal-skins, with a long pole in their hands, move their heads backwards and forwards, and snort like a seal, till they come so near, that they are able to reach and strike them with the pole. It is of the

utmost importance to these people to excel in hunting and fishing, since on their skill in these employments depends their whole subsistence.

In fishing, they make use of hooks of iron or bones; their lines are made of white whalebone, cut very small and thin, and with this tackle they catch abundance of fish. Their way of fishing for small salmon or sea trout is as follows: at low water they build small inclosures of stone, near a river's mouth, or any other place where the salmon come: when the tide comes in, the salmon, which enter the river, pass at high water over the inclosure, and remain in the river till the water falls again, when they endeavour to return to the sea; but the fishermen way-lay them at the inclosure, and stop their passage at the time of low ebb, when the salmon are left on dry land, and may be caught with the hand: if they are left in holes, they take them with a pole headed with two sharp hooked bones, or iron hooks.

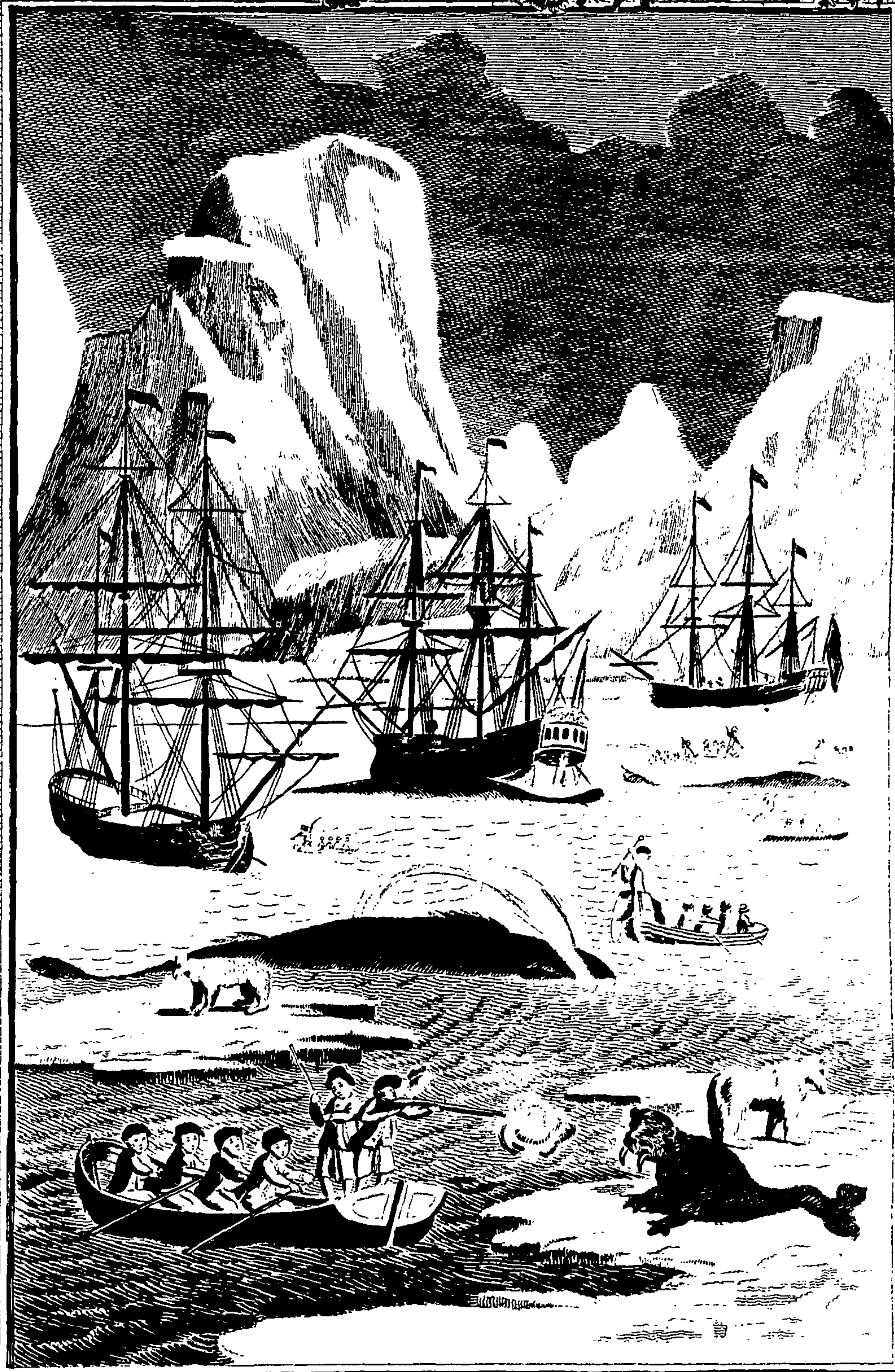
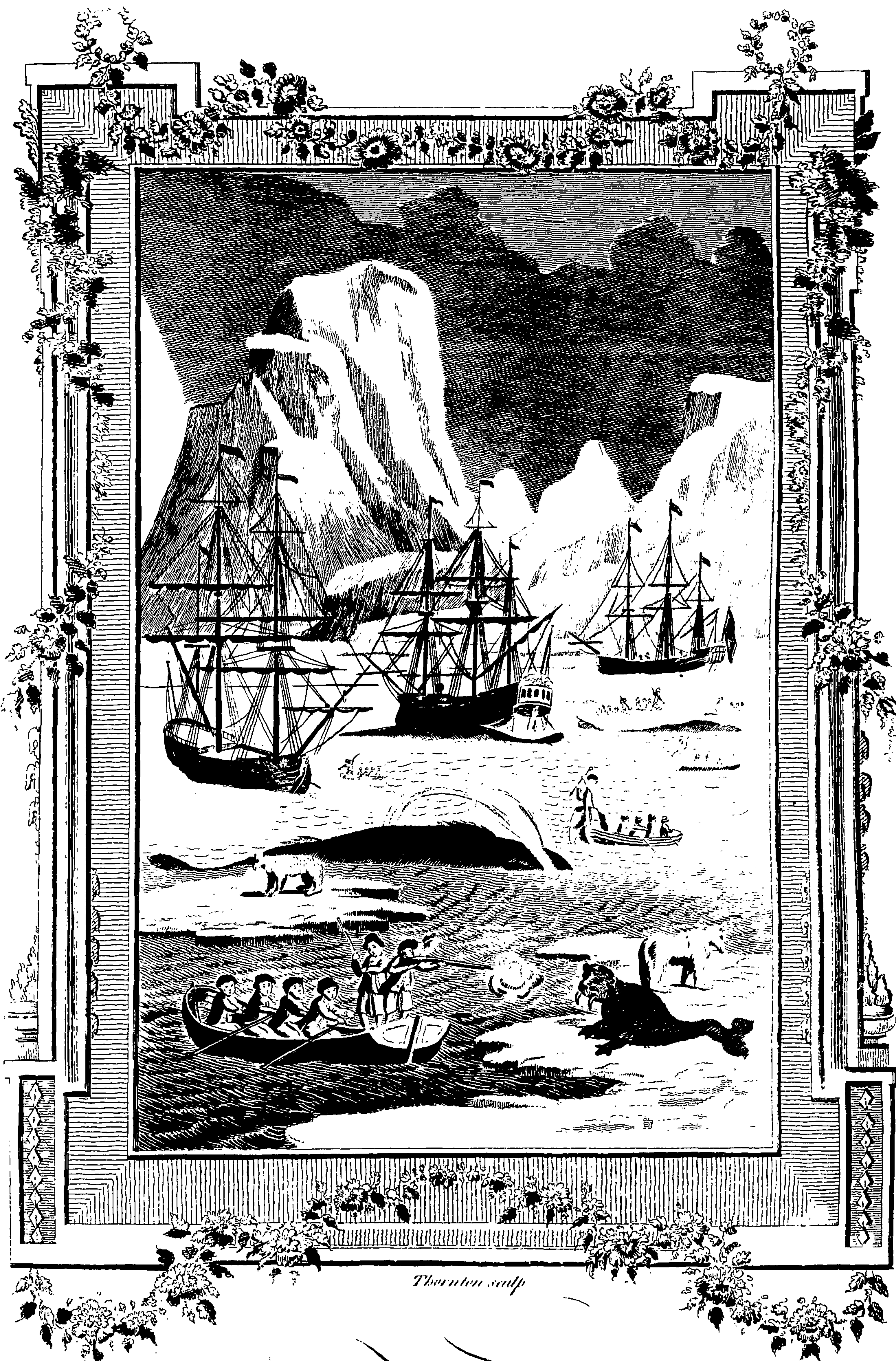
They are strangers to trade, arts, and sciences; have no traffic one among another, and their commerce with foreigners is very inconsiderable. They neither use nor have any knowledge of money; but fix a certain value on iron, which they barter for goods.

At their entertainments, they express their mirth by drumming, singing, and dancing. They are accustomed from their very childhood to an unbounded liberty, all of them being on a level. They have indeed little regard to the forms of ceremony and decorum, which in other places obtain the name of politeness; yet are free, open, and cheerful in conversation; nothing pleasing them better than merry jests and raillery. They live very sociably, and repose great confidence in each other. Amorous intrigues of an unlawful kind are seldom or never heard of among them; and as they abstain from theft, rapine, and violence among themselves, they are never known upon any pretence to make war on their neighbours. They think themselves greatly superior to the Danes, and make no scruple to pilfer any thing from them, when it can be done with safety; but it is probable they have little idea of property: and as they behave with such integrity to each other, it is natural to suppose that they have learnt this pilfering of the Dutch and Danish seamen. They exercise great hospitality, and indeed have most things in common; so that if there be any among them who cannot work, or get his livelihood, they do not let him starve, but admit him freely to their table. They are remarkable for their good nature and inoffensive behaviour: hatred and envy, strife and rage, are rarely heard of among them. They have as great an abhorrence of stealing from each other as any nation upon the earth, and therefore keep nothing under lock and key; but leave all so free that every body may come at it, notwithstanding which they have no fear of losing it.

The Greenlanders are charged with having no idea of a God, and some authors have said that their language has not any expression to denote a Supreme Being; though they themselves acknowledge that they are convinced of the immortality of the soul, and believe that as soon as a person dies he goes to the land of spirits, and there enjoys the felicity of hunting from age to age; while the body remains behind and moulders in the dust. They maintain, however, that there is a spirit, which they call Torngarsuk, to whom they ascribe a supernatural power, though not the creation of the world. The Angakuts, or prophets, form very whimsical ideas of this being, some representing him as without form or shape, others giving him that of a bear, and others pretending that he has a large body and but one arm. They assign him his abode in the lower regions of the earth, where they tell you is constantly fine sun-shine weather, good water, deer, and fowls in abundance. They likewise maintain that a spirit resides in the air, whom they name the moderator, or restrainer; for these Angakuts pretend, by his order, to command the people to abstain from certain things, as preservatives from evil and danger.

They believe that there are spirits who govern the elements; and their notions of the heavenly bodies are very whimsical; they say the moon was once a young man, and the sun a young woman his sister, with whom he was familiar in the dark; but that she being desirous to find out her lover, rubbed her hands with soot, with which she marked his white bear-skin coat, and hence they say came the spots in the moon. The sun flying from his embraces, ascended the air, whither the moon followed her, and still continues to pursue, without being able to overtake her; but this is probably only a fiction of their poets, like those of Ovid in his *Metamorphoses*.

Their



Thornton's sculp

View of the WHALE FISHERY, &c. in Greenland.

Their time is not computed or measured by weeks or years, but only by months, beginning their computation from the sun's first rising above their horizon in the winter, from whence they tell the moons, in order to know exactly the season in which every sort of fish, sea animals, or birds, seek the land, that by this knowledge they may regulate their different employments. According to their astronomical system, the heavens turn round the point of a huge rock.

A circumstance very extraordinary in these people, thus seated in frozen regions, which might be supposed to damp the genius and extinguish the fire of imagination, is their talent for poetry, in which they take extreme delight. The poems they compose are a kind of lyric odes, the harmony of which depends both upon rhyme and quantity, there being a visible regularity in the number of syllables of which their verses are composed, and a plain regard to cadence even in their manner of reading them. They use this sort of poetry, which, all things considered, is as far from being rude, as it is from being exact, to express all their passions, such as love, joy, grief, but more especially anger; for when two people quarrel in this country, it is said they challenge each other, not to fight, for that they never do but in jest, or by way of diversion, but to contend in verse; and he who first wants words to express himself in this poetical duel, is held to be conquered, and so the controversy ends without either law-suit or shedding of blood.

The Rev. Mr. Eggede, who was sent to Greenland by the Danish society for propagating the Gospel, lived among this people fifteen years, which he spent with the most indefatigable zeal and laborious application, by which means he made a great number of converts. He returned to Copenhagen in 1736, and by his solicitation a seminary was founded in that city for educating able missionaries and catechists to be sent to Greenland. The Mission-college also sends young lads to Greenland to learn the language, and to be instructed by the missionaries there, in order to qualify them for the ministry.

The trade of this country is at present carried on by the Copenhagen company, who send thither three or four ships every year, and the Dutch are prohibited from coming within several miles of their colonies. The commodities Greenland affords for commerce are whale-blubber, whalebone, sea-unicorns horns, the skins of reindeer, bears, seals, and fox-skins, which they barter for the following merchandizes; shirts made of white, blue, red, and striped linen, coarse woollen cloth, knives, saws, needles, large fishing-hooks, and other hard-ware; looking-glasses, rafts, poles, deal boards, chests, kettles of copper, brass, tin, &c.

Before we take our leave of this country, it may not be amiss to present our readers with a singular, but well authenticated, relation of the adventures of four Russian sailors, who remained several years in Greenland.

Jeremiah Okladnikov, a merchant of Meseu, a town in the province of Jugovia, and in the government of Archangel, fitted out a vessel, in the year 1743, carrying fourteen men; she was destined for Spitzbergen, to be employed in the whale or seal fishery. The wind was fair for eight successive days after they had sailed; but on the ninth it changed, so that instead of getting to the west of Spitzbergen, the usual place of rendezvous for the Dutch ships, and those of other nations, annually employed in the whale fishery, they were driven eastward.

After some days, however, they approached within two English miles of the shore, when the vessel was suddenly surrounded by ice, and they found themselves in an extreme dangerous situation. In this alarming state a council was held; when the mate, Alexis Himkof, informed them, that he recollected to have heard that some of the people of Meseu, some time before, having formed a resolution of wintering here, had accordingly carried from that city timber proper for building a hut, and had actually erected one at some distance from the shore. This information induced the whole company to resolve on wintering here, if the hut, as they hoped, still existed; for they clearly perceived the imminent danger they were in, and that they must inevitably perish if they continued in the ship.

Accordingly they dispatched four of their crew in search of the hut, or any other succour they could meet with. These were, Alexis Himkof, the mate; Iwan Himkof, his godson; Stephen Scharapot, and Feodor Weregine. But as the shore on which they were to land was uninhabited, it was necessary that they should make some provision for their expedition. They had almost two miles to

travel over loose ridges of ice, which being raised by the waves, and driven against each other by the wind, rendered the way equally difficult and dangerous: prudence therefore forbade their loading themselves too much, lest, being overburdened, they might sink in between the pieces of ice, and perish. They then provided themselves with a musket, and a powder-horn containing twelve charges of powder, with as many balls, an ax, a small kettle, a bag with about twenty pounds of flour, a knife, a tinder-box and tinder, a bladder with tobacco, and every man his wooden pike.

Thus accoutred, these four sailors quickly arrived at Spitzbergen, little suspecting the misfortunes that would befall them. They began with exploring the country; and soon discovered the hut they were in search of, about an English mile and a half from the shore. It was thirty-six feet in length, eighteen feet in height, and as many in breadth. It contained a small antechamber about twelve feet broad, which had two doors, the one to shut it from the outer air, and the other to form a communication with the inner room; this contributed greatly to keep the larger room warm when once heated. In the large room was an earthen stove constructed in the Russian manner; that is, a kind of oven without a chimney, which serves occasionally either for baking, or heating the room, or for a place to sleep upon when the weather is very cold, to which latter use the Russian peasants frequently apply it.

The discovery of the hut was very agreeable to the sailors, who perceived it had suffered much by the weather, it having been built a considerable time, but, bad as it was, they contrived to pass the night in it. Early the next morning they hastened to the shore, impatient to inform their comrades of their success; and also to procure from their vessel such provision, ammunition, and other necessaries, as might better enable them to winter there.

When they reached the place of their landing, the astonishment and agony they felt was inexpressibly great, on seeing nothing but an open sea, free from the ice, which but a day before had covered the ocean. A violent storm, which had arisen during the night, had certainly been the cause of this disastrous event. But they could not tell whether the ice, which had before hemmed in the vessel, agitated by the violence of the waves, had been driven against her, and shattered her to pieces; or whether she had been carried by the current into the main; a circumstance which frequently happens in those seas. Whatever accident had befallen the ship, they saw her no more; and as no tidings were ever after heard of her, it is most probable that both she and all on board went to the bottom.

The unhappy wretches being deprived, by this melancholy event, of all hope of ever being able to quit the place, returned to the hut full of horror and despair, and their first intention was employed, as may be easily imagined, in devising means for their subsistence, and repairing their hut. The twelve charges of powder which they had brought with them soon procured them as many rein-deer; and it fortunately happened that there were great numbers of those animals in the country.

On examining the hut, they found that there were cracks in many places between the boards of the building, that freely admitted the air. This inconvenience, however, was easily remedied, as they had an ax, and the beams were still sound, so that it was easy for them to make the boards join again; besides moss growing in great abundance all over the country, there was more than sufficient to stop up the crevices, which wooden houses must always be liable to.

These climates are habitable but to few species of animals, by reason of the intense cold, which also renders them equally unfit for the production of vegetables. No tree or shrub of any kind is found in Spitzbergen; a circumstance of the most alarming nature to these sailors. Without fire it was impossible to resist the rigour of the climate; and without wood, how was that fire to be produced or supported? Providence however, has so ordered it, that in this particular, the sea supplies the defects of the land. In wandering along the beach, they collected plenty of wood, which had been driven ashore by the waves, and which at first consisted of the wrecks of ships, and afterwards of whole trees with their roots, the produce of some more hospitable, but to them unknown, climate, which had been sent into the ocean by the overflowing of rivers, or other accidents.

During the first year of their exile, nothing proved of more essential service to them, than some boards they found upon the beach, having a long iron hook, some nails of about five or six inches long, and proportionably thick, and

and other bits of iron fixed in them; the melancholy reliques of some vessel cast away in those remote parts. These were thrown ashore by the waves at that time when the want of powder gave our men reason to apprehend that they must fall a prey to hunger, as they had nearly consumed the rein-deer they had killed.

This fortunate circumstance was attended with another equally so; for they found, on the shore, the root of a fir-tree, of a form nearly resembling that of a bow, which fashion they soon brought it to, by the help of a knife; but still they wanted a string and arrows. Not knowing how to procure these at present, they resolved upon making a couple of lances, to defend themselves against the attacks of the white bears.

As neither the heads of their lances nor arrows could be made without the help of a hammer, they contrived to form the large iron hook before-mentioned into one, by beating it, and widening a hole, it happened to have about its middle, with the help of one of their largest nails: this received the handle, and a round button at one end of the hook served for the face of the hammer. A large pebble supplied the place of an anvil, and a couple of rein-deer horns made the tongs. By means of these tools they made two heads of spears; and after polishing and sharpening them on stones, they tied them as fast as possible, with thongs made of rein-deer skins, to sticks about the thickness of a man's arm, which they got from some branches of trees they found on the coast.

Having now equipped themselves with spears, they resolved to attack a white bear; and after a most dangerous encounter, they killed one, and thereby procured a new supply of provisions. The flesh of this animal they relished exceedingly, as they thought it much resembled beef in taste and flavour. They saw, with much pleasure, that the tendons could, with little or no trouble, be divided into filaments of what fineness they thought fit. This, perhaps, was the most fortunate discovery they could make; for they were hereby furnished with strings for their bow, besides other advantages.

They next proceeded to forge some pieces of iron into heads of arrows of the same shape, though somewhat smaller in size than the spears. Having ground and sharpened these like the former, they tied them, with the sinews of the white bear, to pieces of fir, to which, by the help of fine threads of the same, they fastened feathers of sea fowl, and thus became possessed of a complete bow and arrows. Their ingenuity respecting this was crowned with success far beyond their expectation; for, during the time of their continuance here, they killed no less than two hundred and fifty rein-deer, besides a great number of blue and white foxes. The flesh of these animals served them also for food, and their skins for cloathing and other necessary preservatives against the intense coldness of a climate so near the pole. But they killed only ten white bears in all, and that not without the utmost danger; for these animals, being prodigiously strong, defended themselves with astonishing vigour and fury.

They attacked the first bear designedly, but the other nine they killed in defending themselves from their assaults: for some of these creatures even ventured to enter the outer room of the hut, in order to devour them. It is true, all the bears did not shew equal ferocity, either owing to some being less pressed by hunger, or to their being naturally less carnivorous than the others: for some of them which entered the hut immediately betook themselves to flight on the first attempt of the sailors to drive them away. A repetition, however, of these attacks, threw the poor men into great terror and anxiety, as they were almost in perpetual danger of being devoured.

The three different kinds of animals before-mentioned, viz. the rein-deer, the foxes, and the white bears, were the only food these wretched mariners tasted during their continuance in this dreary abode. They were also for some time reduced to the necessity of eating their meat quite raw, and without either bread or salt, for neither of these could be procured. The intenseness of the cold, together with the want of proper conveniences, prevented them from cooking their victuals in a proper manner. There was but one stove in the hut, and that was not well adapted for boiling any thing. Wood also was too precious a commodity to be expended in keeping up two fires; and the one they might have made out of their habitation to dress their victuals, could never have served to warm them: besides, the continual danger of an attack from the white bears, was another reason against their cooking in the open air.

As the eating their meat half raw proved very disagreea-

ble, in order, therefore, to remedy in some measure that hardship, they bethought themselves of drying some of their provisions, during the summer, in the open air, and afterwards of hanging it up in the upper part of the hut, which was continually filled with smoke. This meat, so prepared, they used for bread, and it made them relish their other flesh the better, as they could only half-dress it. Finding this experiment answer their wishes in every respect, they continued to practise it during the whole time of their confinement in this country, and always kept up, by that means, a sufficient stock of provisions. In summer, they had water from small rivulets that fell from the rocks; and in winter from the snow and thawed ice; this was of course their only beverage; and for drinking, and other purposes, their small kettle was the only vessel they could make use of.

Seafaring people are known to be extremely subject to the scurvy, and this disease increases in proportion as they approach the poles; which must be attributed to the excessive cold, or some other cause yet unknown. The sailors, therefore, seeing themselves quite destitute of every means of cure, in case they should be attacked with so fatal a disorder, judged it expedient not to neglect any regimen generally adopted as a preservative against this impending evil. Iwan Hinkof, one of their number, who had several times wintered on the coast of Spitzbergen, advised his unfortunate companions to swallow raw and frozen meat broken into small bits; to drink the blood of rein-deer warm as it flowed from their veins immediately after killing them; to use as much exercise as possible, and, lastly, to eat scurvy-grass, which this country produces.

These remedies experience proved to be effectual; for three of the sailors, who pursued this method, continued totally free from all taint of the disorder. The fourth, Feodor Weregine, who was naturally indolent, averse to drinking the rein-deer blood, and unwilling to leave the hut when he could possibly avoid it, was, soon after their arrival, seized with the scurvy, which afterwards became so bad, that he passed almost six years under the greatest sufferings: in the latter part of that time he became so weak, that he could no longer sit erect, nor even raise his hand to his mouth; so that his humane companions were obliged to feed and attend him to the hour of his death, as if he had been a new-born infant.

They soon found the necessity of keeping up a continual fire in so cold a climate, and perceived that if it should unfortunately go out, they had no means of lighting it again; for though they had a steel and flints, yet they wanted both match and tinder. In their excursions through the country they had met with a slimy loam, or a kind of clay, out of which they found means to form a utensil that might serve for a lamp; and they proposed to keep it constantly burning, with the fat of the animals they should kill. This was certainly the most rational scheme they could have thought of; for to be without a light, in a climate where, during winter, darkness reigns for several months together, would have added much to their other calamities. Having therefore fashioned a kind of lamp, they filled it with rein-deer's fat, and stuck in some twisted linen shaped into a wick. But they had the mortification to find, that as soon as the fat melted, it not only soaked into the clay, but ran through on all sides. It was therefore necessary to devise some means for preventing this inconvenience, not arising from cracks, but from the substance of which the lamp was made being too porous. They therefore made a new one, dried it thoroughly in the air, then heated it red-hot, and afterwards quenched it in their kettle, wherein they had boiled a quantity of flour (part of the small bag they had preserved) down to the consistence of thin starch. The lamp being thus dried, and filled with fat, they now found to their great joy, it did not leak: but, for greater security they dipped linen rags in their paste, and with them covered all its outlets.

Succeeding in this attempt, they immediately made another lamp, for fear of an accident, that in all events they might not be destitute of light; and when they had made these two, they thought proper to save the remainder of their flour for similar purposes. As they had carefully collected whatever happened to be cast on shore to supply them with fuel, they had found among wrecks of vessels some cordage, and a small quantity of oakum, which served them to make wicks for their lamps. When these stores began to fail, their shirts and drawers were employed to make good the deficiency. By these means they kept a lamp burning without intermission, from the day they first made it, till that of their embarkation.

They

They were, however, exposed the more to the rigour of the climate, from the necessity they were under of converting their shirts and drawers to the use above specified; they also found themselves in want of shoes, boots, and other articles of dress; and, as winter was approaching, they were again obliged to that ingenuity which necessity suggests, and which seldom fails in the trying hour of distress. They had skins of rein-deer and foxes in abundance, that had hitherto served them for bedding, and which they now thought of employing in some more essential service; but the question was, how to tan them. After deliberating on this matter, they took the following method: they soaked the skins for several days in fresh-water, till they could pull off the hair tolerably well; they then rubbed the wet leather with their hands till it was nearly dry, when they spread some melted rein-deer's fat over it, and again rubbed it well. By this process, the leather became soft, pliant, and supple, proper for answering every purpose for which it was intended. Those skins which they designed for furs they only soaked for one day, to prepare them for being wrought, and then proceeded in the manner before mentioned, except only that they did not remove the hair. Thus they soon furnished themselves with the necessary materials for all the parts of dress they had occasion for.

Another difficulty which occurred was, they had neither awls for making shoes or boots, nor needles for sewing their garments. These wants, however, they soon supplied, by means of the bits of iron they had occasionally collected. Out of these they made both; and by their industry even brought them to a certain degree of perfection. The making eyes to their needles gave them indeed no little trouble; but this they also performed with the assistance of their knife; for having ground it to a very sharp point, and heated red-hot a kind of wire, they pierced a hole through one end, and by wetting and smoothing it on stones, brought the other to a point, and thus gave a very tolerable form to the whole needle.

A pair of scissars to cut out the skins, was the next material thing wanted; but this deficiency was supplied by their knife; and though there was neither taylor nor shoemaker amongst them; yet they contrived to cut out their leather and furs well enough for the purpose. The sinews of the bears and rein-deer served them for thread; and then they proceeded to make their new cloaths with the necessary implements which they had provided.

They wore, in summer, a kind of jacket and trowsers, made of skins, prepared as above; and in winter they wore long fur gowns, like the Samois or Laplanders, furnished with a hood, which covered their head and neck, leaving only an opening for the face. These gowns were sewed close round; so that they were obliged to bring them over their heads, like a shirt, when they put them on.

After these distressed exiles had passed near six years in this dismal place, Feoder Wereg, whose illness we before took notice of, and who all along had been in a languid condition, died; after having, in the latter part of his life, suffered the most excruciating pains. Though they were thus freed from the trouble of attending him, and the grief of being witnesses to his misery, without being able to afford him any relief, yet they were greatly affected at his death. They saw the number lessened, and every one wished to be the first that should follow him. As he died in winter, they dug a grave in the snow as deep as they could, in which they laid the corpse, and in order to secure it from the bears, covered it over in the best manner they could.

While the melancholy reflections occasioned by the death of their comrade were fresh in their minds, and when each expected to pay this last duty to the remaining companions of his misfortunes, or to receive it from them, they unexpectedly got sight of a Russian ship. This happened on the 15th of August, 1749. The vessel belonged to a trader of the sect called by its adherents Stara Viev, that is, the Old Faith, who had come from Archangel, and proposed wintering in Nova Zembla; but the contrary winds they met with in their passage made it impossible for them to reach the place of their destination. The vessel was driven towards Spitzbergen, directly opposite to the residence of our mariners, who, as soon as they perceived her, hastened to light fires on the hills nearest their habitations, and then ran to the beach, waving a flag made of rein-deer's hide fastened to a pole. The people on board, seeing these signals, came to an anchor not far from the land, as they concluded that there were men on the shore who implored their assistance.

The joy of these poor people, on seeing the moment of their deliverance so near, was almost indescribable. They

soon agreed with the master of the ship to work for him on the voyage, and to pay him eighty rubles on their arrival, for taking them on board with all their riches, which consisted in fifty pud, or two thousand pounds weight, of rein-deer's fat, in many hides of these animals, and in skins of the blue and white foxes, together with those of the ten white bears which they had killed. They took care not to forget their bows and arrows, their spears, their knife and ax, which were almost worn out; also their awls and their needles, which they kept carefully in a bone box very ingeniously made with the knife only.

On the 28th of September, 1749, our adventurers arrived safe at Archangel, having spent six years and three months in their rueful solitude. But the moment of their landing had nearly proved fatal to the loving and beloved wife of Alexis Himkof, who, being present when the vessel came into port, immediately knew her husband, and ran with so much eagerness to his embraces, that she narrowly escaped being drowned by slipping into the water.

On their arrival, they were all three strong and healthy; but having lived so long without bread, they could not reconcile themselves to the use of it; neither did they drink any thing but water, as they could not bear any spirituous liquors.

We shall conclude our description of Greenland with a curious narrative of the methods made use of by eight seamen, viz. William Fakeley, gunner; Edward Pelham, gunner's-mate, the writer of this narrative; John Wise, and Robert Goodfellow, seamen; Thomas Ayerss, whale-cutter; Henry Bett, cooper; John Dawes and Richard Kellet, landmen; who wintered in Greenland, to preserve their existence in that inhospitable clime; and of their happy deliverance and return from it.

On the first of May 1630, the Salutation set sail from the Thames, and arrived at Greenland on the 11th of the next month. Being in want of provisions the latter end of the year, they sent eight men on shore at a place pretty much frequented by rein deer, to kill venison, leaving them a boat, and orders to follow the ship to Green-Harbour, which lies to the southward of the place where they went ashore. These men having killed fourteen or fifteen deer, lay that night ashore, and proposed next day to have gone on board the ship; but a great quantity of ice driving towards the shore, obliged the ship to stand out so far to sea, that when they came to Green Harbour they were out of sight. However, the ship being to rendezvous in Belsound, further to the southward, and being to leave the country within three days, our hunters began to be very anxious, lest the shipping should be gone from thence too before they arrived. They thought it proper, therefore, to sling their venison into the sea, in order to lighten the boat, and make the best of their way to Belsound, distant from thence about sixteen leagues: but none of them knowing the coast very well, they overshot their port about ten leagues, when, sensible of their error, they returned to the northward; but one of their company being still positive Belsound lay farther to the south, they were induced to make to the southward again, till they were a second time convinced of their mistake; and then they turned their boat to the north again, and again arrived at Belsound; but had spent so much time in rowing backwards and forwards, that the ships had actually left the coast, and were gone to England, to their great astonishment, being provided neither with cloaths, food, firing, or house to shelter themselves from the piercing cold they were to expect in so rigorous a climate. They stood some time looking on one another, as men amazed at the distress they were on a sudden reduced to; but their consternation being a little abated, they began to think of the properest means to subsist themselves during the approaching winter; and the weather being favourable, they agreed in the first place, to go to Green Harbour, and hunt for venison; having two dogs with them very fit for their purpose.

Accordingly, on the 25th of August, they went in their boats to Green Harbour, where they arrived in twelve hours, being sixteen leagues to the northward of Belsound. Here they set up a tent made with a boat's sail, the oars serving for poles; and, having slept a few hours, went early next morning to their sport, killing seven or eight deer and four bears, and the day following they killed twelve deer more, with which they loaded their boats; and, finding another boat which had been left there by the company, they loaded that with the greaves of whales (being the pieces which remain in the coppers, after the oil is drawn from them), and returned with their booty to Belsound. Here happened to be set up a large substantial

booth, which the coopers worked in at the fishing season: it was eighty feet long, and fifty broad, covered with Dutch tiles, and the sides well boarded. Within this booth these sailors determined to build another of less dimensions, being furnished with boards and timber, by pulling down a booth which stood near the former: and from the chimnies of three furnaces, used for the boiling of oil, they got a thousand bricks, they found also four hogsheds of very fine lime, which, mingled with the sand on the sea-shore, made excellent mortar.

The weather was by this time grown so cold, that they were obliged to have two fires, to keep their mortar from freezing. They persisted, however, in their work, and raised a wall of the thickness of a brick against one of the sides of their innermost booth; but wanting bricks to finish the rest in like manner, they nailed thick boards on each side the timbers, and filled up the space between with sand: by which means it became so tight and close, that the least breath of air could not enter in; and the chimney's vent was in the greater booth. The length of this lesser booth, was twenty feet, the breadth sixteen feet, the height ten; their ceiling being made of deal boards five or six times double, and so overlaid, that no air could possibly come in from thence. Their door they did not only make as strong and close as possible, but lined it with a bed which they found there: they made no windows, except a little hole in the tiles of the great booth, by which they received some light down the chimney of the lesser: they then made four cabbins, chusing to lie two in each cabin. Their bedding was the skins of the rein-deer, the same that the Laplanders use, and they found them exceedingly warm; and for firing, they took to pieces some casks, and seven or eight of the boats which were left behind (for it seems they use a great many boats in whale-fishing, which they leave in the country every winter, rather than be at the trouble of carrying them backwards and forwards). Our sailors stowed their firing between the beams and roof of the greater booth, in order to make it the warmer, and keep out the snow, which would have covered every thing in the greater booth, if it had not been for this contrivance.

On the 12th of September, observing a piece of ice come driving towards the shore, with two morises, or sea-horses, asleep upon it, they went out in their boat with a harping iron and spears, and killed them both; and on the 19th of the same month, another, which was some addition to their food. But taking a very narrow survey of all their provisions, they found that there was not half enough to serve them the whole winter; and therefore they stinted themselves to one meal a day, and agreed to keep Wednesdays and Fridays as fasting days, allowing themselves then only the fritters or greaves of the whales, which is very loathsome food. By the 10th of October the nights were grown long, and the weather so cold, that the sea was frozen over; and having no business now to divert their thoughts, as heretofore, they began to reflect on their miserable circumstances, sometimes complaining of the cruelty of the master of the ship, in leaving them behind; and at others, excusing him, and bemoaning his misfortunes, as believing him to have perished in the ice. At length putting their confidence in heaven, which only could relieve them in their great distress, they redoubled their prayers for strength and patience to go through the dismal trial, and received great satisfaction from their devotions, which no doubt were as sincere and fervent as ever were offered up to the Divine Being.

Having now again surveyed their provisions, they found that the fritters of the whale were almost all mouldy, having taken some wet, and of their bear and venison there was scarce enough left to afford them five meals a week; whereupon it was agreed to live four days of the week upon the mouldy fritters, and the other three to feast upon bear and venison: and lest there should want firing hereafter, to dress their meat, they thought it proper to roast every day half a deer, and stow it up in hogsheds; and with this kind of food they filled three hogsheds and a half; leaving so much raw as would serve to roast every Sunday a quarter, and a quarter for Christmas-day.

It being now the 14th of October, the sun left them, and they saw it no more till the third of February; but they had the moon all the time, both day and night, though very much obscured by the clouds and foul weather.

There was also a glimmering kind of day-light for eight hours, the latter end of October, which shortened every day till the first of December, from which time, to the 20th of the same month, they could perceive no day-light at all. It was now one continued night, there appearing only in clear

weather a little whiteness like the dawn of day towards the south.

On the first of January they found their day a little to increase. They counted their days it seems, by the moon; and were so exact, that at the return of the shipping, they were able to tell the very day of the month on which the fleet arrived. As for light within doors, they made them three lamps of some sheet lead they had found upon one of the coolers; and there happened to be oil enough to supply them in the cooper's tent; for wicks, they made use of rope-yarn; and these lamps were very comfortable to them in that long continued night. But still their misery was such, that they could not forbear uttering hasty speeches against the authors of their misfortunes; at other times, reflecting on their former ill spent lives, they considered this as a just punishment of their offences; and at other times that they were reserved to bear witness to God's wonderful mercy in their deliverance; therefore they implored the protection of the Almighty, and continued constantly to fall down on their knees two or three times a day.

The cold increased to that degree, after the new year commenced, that it sometimes raised blisters in their flesh, as if they had been burnt, and the iron they touched stuck to their fingers. When they went abroad for water, the cold often seized them in such a manner, that it made them sore, as if they had been severely beaten. Their water, the first part of the winter, issued from a bay of ice, and ran down into a kind of basin, or receptacle, by the sea-side, where it remained with a thick ice over it, which they dug open at one certain place with pick-axes every day. This continued to the tenth of January, and then they drank snow-water, melted with a hot iron, until the twentieth of May following; and now they took another review of their provisions, which they found would not last them above six weeks longer.

To alleviate their misery, on the third of February, they were cheered again with the bright rays of the sun, which shone upon the tops of the snowy mountains with an inconceivable lustre: to them, at least, this afforded the most delightful scene that was ever beheld; and after a night of many weeks or some months, what could be imagined more pleasing to a mortal eye! As an addition to their joy, all the bears began to appear again, on the flesh of which they had made many hearty meals: but these animals were as ready to devour our countrymen, as they were the bears, and, being pinched with hunger in this barren place, came up to their very door. One of these creatures, with her cub, they met at the entrance of their apartment, and gave her such a reception with their pikes and lances, that they laid her dead upon the spot, and the young one was glad to make his escape; but the weather was so cold that they could not stay to flay her, but dragged the beast into their house, and there went to work, cutting her into pieces of a stone weight, one of which served them for a dinner; and upon this they fed twenty days, esteeming her flesh beyond venison, only her liver did not agree with them; for upon eating it, their skins peeled off; though one of the company who was sick, attributes his cure, in part, to the eating of it.

If it be enquired how they kept their venison and bear's flesh without salt, it is to be observed, the cold is so extreme, that no corpse or carcase ever putrefies. Had they been stocked with salt provisions, they had infallibly died of the scurvy, as others did, who were left on shore, much better provided with liquors and other necessaries than these poor men were. By that time they had eaten up this bear, others came about their booth frequently, to the number of forty and more, of which they killed seven (one of them six feet high at least) roasting their flesh upon wooden spits. Having now plenty of provisions, they ate heartily two or three times a day, and could find their strength increase apace, and their health established.

The sixteenth of March being now come, and the days of a reasonable length, the fowls, which in the winter season were fled to the southward, began to resort to Greenland again in great abundance; here they live and breed in summer, feeding upon small fish. The foxes also which had kept close in their holes under the rocks all the winter, now came abroad, and preyed upon the fowls, of which our countrymen, having taken some, baited traps with their skins, and caught fifty foxes in them, which they roasted, and found to be very good meat; at least in the opinion of men who had fed hitherto pretty much on bear's flesh. Thus they continued taking fowls and foxes till the first of May, meeting with no other misfortunes, except

except the loss of one of their two mastiff dogs, which went from their house one morning, in the middle of March, and was never seen afterwards; being probably overpowered by the bears, and eaten by those animals.

In May, the weather beginning to grow warm, they rambled about in search of willocks eggs, a fowl about the bigness of a duck, of which they found some, being a change of diet, they were very much pleased with: and now the season coming on for the arrival of shipping, they went some of them every day almost to the top of a mountain, to see if they could discern the water in the sea, which they had no sight of till the twenty-fourth of this month, when it blowing a storm, and the wind setting from the main ocean, broke the ice in the bay, and, soon after, turning about easterly, carried great part of the ice out to sea; but still the water did not come within three miles of their dwelling. The next morning, the twenty-fifth of May, none of their men happened to go abroad; but one of them being in the outward booth, heard somebody hail the house, in the same manner as sailors do a ship, to which the man in the outward booth answered in seamen's terms: they were then just going to prayers, and stayed but for the man above-mentioned to join with them. Surely no sailors were ever so devout: but even sailors will address themselves to heaven in their distress, when no human aid can help them; as sick men

will send for the priest, when the physician hath given them over.

The man who hailed them was one of the boat's crew that belonged to an English ship just come from England, which our religious sailors no sooner understood, but they put off their devotions, and ran out to meet their countrymen, looking upon them as so many angels sent from heaven to their relief: but there was one mortification still in store, which no man would have expected; one of the ships which now arrived was commanded by the same master which left these poor wretches on shore; and he, barbarous brute! in order to excuse his own inhumanity, began to revile and curse them, calling them rogues and runaways: and this same man, it seems, had left seven or eight other men in Greenland two years before, which were never heard of afterwards; for which, no doubt, he richly deserved the gallows, though our laws take but little notice of offences of this kind. But notwithstanding the barbarity of their own captain, the commander and officers of the other ship took care they should be kindly used, and brought to England, when the season for whale-fishing was over, where they received a gratuity from the Russia company, and were otherwise well provided for by them.

C H A P. VIII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

P R U S S I A.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Account of the Kingdom of PRUSSIA, with its chief Divisions; also a particular Description of the Kingdom of PRUSSIA, properly so called, Brandenburg, Prussian Pomerania, Swedish Pomerania, Magdeburg and Halberstadt; their Boundaries and Extent, Towns, Rivers, Inhabitants, Trade, Climate, Soil, Produce, Animals, &c.

THIS monarchy is composed of twenty-one principal divisions; namely, 1. Ducal, now Regal Prussia, situated in Poland; 2. Brandenburg; 3. Prussian Pomerania; 4. Swedish Pomerania, in Upper Saxony; 5. Magdeburg; 6. Halberstadt, in Lower Saxony; 7. Glatz, in Bohemia; 8. Minden; 9. Ravensburg; 10. Lingen; 11. Cleves; 12. Meurs; 13. Mark, in the duchy of Westphalia; 14. East Friesland; 15. Lippe; 16. Gulick, 17. Tacklenburgh, in the circle of Westphalia; 18. Gelder, in the Netherlands; 19. Neufchatel, in Switzerland; 20. Part of Silesia; 21. The countries lately dismembered from Poland, and now added to Prussia.

The kingdom of Prussia is bounded on the north by part of Samogitia; on the South by Masovia and Poland Proper; on the east by part of Lithuania; and, on the west, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic: the length being one hundred and sixty, and the breadth one hundred and twelve miles.

With respect to the climate, the autumn, in this country, is usually wet, and the winter severe; yet the air, being purified in some measure by the high winds, is tolerably wholesome.

This country produces corn, flax, hemp, fruit, hops, pasturage, game, foxes, cattle, such as horses, sheep, deer, &c. also bears, wolves, lynxes, wild-boars, &c.

The inhabitants are plentifully supplied with fish from the Baltic, and the rivers and lakes; and on the shore of the former great quantities of amber are found, inclosed in which are often seen spiders, flies, gnats, minerals, leaves, fishes, frogs, ants, drops of water, pieces of wood, &c.

There is likewise found a kind of manna, and an insect, of whose eggs that beautiful red colour, called St. John's blood, is made. Wood, pit coal, wax, honey, pitch, &c. abounds; and glass is made of the ashes of some

kinds of wood. Besides the lakes and canals, several fine rivers water the country, which afford good inland navigation; but the inundations sometimes occasion great damages.

The inhabitants of Ducal Prussia only, capable of bearing arms, amounted, previous to the year 1719, to six hundred, thirty-five thousand, nine hundred and ninety-eight persons. Since that period, seventeen thousand Saltz-burgers, and the same number of German, Swiss and French colonists, have settled in this country; and these emigrants have, since their coming into this kingdom, erected and founded eleven towns, four hundred villages, fifty churches, eighty-six seats, and a thousand schools; hence the number of inhabitants at the present time must be greatly augmented.

In Prussia, most religions are tolerated; but the Lutherans and Calvinists prevail. In the thirteenth century, the knights of the Teutonic order made a conquest of the whole country, and committed the most inhuman barbarities; for they extirpated the natives, and put the Germans in their place; instead of converting the people, which they pretended was their view. But in 1454, one half of Prussia revolted from the knights, and put itself under the protection of Poland.

This occasioned an almost continual war betwixt that country and the order, till the year 1525, when by a treaty concluded at Cracow, it was agreed that Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, the thirty-fourth and last master of the order, should have the eastern part, under the title of a duchy, and that it should descend to his and his brother's male heirs as a fief of Poland: but in 1657, the elector, Frederic William, had the sovereignty confirmed to him and his heirs, on condition of its returning to the Poles in case of the failure of heirs male. In 1701, it was raised to a kingdom, by the elector Frederic, who was in a short time after universally acknowledged as king of Prussia. He instituted the order of the black eagle, at Koningsberg, at the time of his coronation. The ensign is a gold cross, like that of Malta, enamelled with blue, and worn at the end of a broad orange-coloured ribbon, which passes over the left shoulder: the number of knights is always thirty, and the sovereign is the grand master.

In the year 1740, his late Prussian majesty founded the order of merit. The mark is a golden cross, with eight

eight points, enamelled with azure, and on the uppermost point is the letter F crowned, on the three lowermost points this motto, 'For Merit;' and on the four other points, which form a St. Andrew's cross, are so many spread eagles in gold; this star is fixed to a black ribbon, which they put about their necks, from whence it hangs down before.

By the institution of an excellent police, the present king of Prussia hath brought this country into a very flourishing situation. The imports are trivial, and the exports many, consequently the balance is greatly in favour of the country. The manufactures, exports, &c. being iron-work, paper, copper, brass, linen, gold lace, silver lace, naval stores, fish, oatmeal, tallow, glass, gunpowder, cloth, camblet, silk, stockings, amber, lintseed, hemp-seed, mead, caviar, &c. With these commodities, upwards of three hundred ships are annually laden, most of which go to Königsberg, and some to other places.

His Prussian majesty has a very considerable revenue from this country, amber alone producing twenty-six thousand dollars annually: the other revenues arise from crown demesnes, duties, customs, tolls, subsidies, &c. This monarch is absolute, in political, civil, ecclesiastical, and feudal matters, in this as well as all his other dominions. And as he usually resides at Berlin, in his electorate of Brandenburg, this country is governed by a regency, consisting of four great officers of state, viz. the great master, burgrave, chancellor and marshal. These are assisted by counsellors of state, deputies from the nobles and from the commons. Here are likewise a board of commerce, a board of navigation, a college of war, a demesne chamber, and several tribunals of justice.

Here, as in all other parts of his Prussian majesty's dominions, the military establishment is very considerable. Each regiment is quartered upon a particular district, and all the young men of that district being registered, are obliged, when called upon, to join the regiment.

This country was formerly divided into German and Lithuanian Prussia; German Prussia containing two hundred and eighty parishes, and Lithuanian Prussia one hundred and five parishes; but its modern division is into the provinces of Little Lithuania, Oberland, Nantangan, and Samland. This latter province or circle lies near the gulf of Courland, and is celebrated for the vast quantities of amber which is found upon the coast.

The principal places are; Königsberg, or Königsberg, the capital, not only of this province, but of the whole kingdom of Prussia; which is situated on the river Pregel, in fifty-four degrees, forty-two minutes, north latitude, and twenty-one degrees, thirty-five minutes, east longitude. It is well fortified, has seven bridges over the Pregel, and was founded by Offocarus or Premislaus I. king of Bohemia, in the year 1255, when that king came to the assistance of the Teutonic knights, against the pagan Samlanders. It consists properly of three towns, formed by so many branches of the river, with the respective suburbs to each. Some geographers affirm, that this is a beautiful city; but on the contrary, the most judicious travellers are unanimous in its dispraise. An ingenious English writer, in particular, the latest we know of who hath visited these parts, says, "This is a vast city; I do not believe it is less than Copenhagen, and it contains fifty thousand inhabitants, exclusive of eight thousand soldiers: it is a great collection of houses and streets, without elegance, beauty, or order: the buildings are in a vile taste and mostly old. Here is an academy founded by one of the first dukes of Prussia, but our grammar schools in England are in general much superior to it. A professor shewed me the library and other apartments; there is nothing worth looking at, except the original passport given by Charles V. to Martin Luther, when he attended the diet of Worms, in 1521, and signed by the emperor's hand: this merits preservation. Königsberg has a considerable trade in hemp and flax; but it is seven German or thirty-five English miles from Oillau, the sea-port, at the mouth of the river Pregel; so that only very small vessels can come up to the town. The present king of Prussia has not shewn any particular attachment for this part of his dominions, nor has he visited the city since the year 1753, though he comes annually to make a general review of the troops at Graudentz, near Marienwarder, on the Vistula, not far from hence."

The three divisions of Königsberg are Altstadt, or the Whole Town, Lobenicht, and Kneiphoff. In the city and suburbs are a great many private gardens. The town-house and exchange are tolerable buildings; and the palace erected by the margrave Albert, is a magnificent

pile, and very capacious, as it contains many courts, public offices, &c. The gardens and parks are great embellishments to it. The citadel, called Fredericksburg, erected in 1657, is a regular fortification, of a square form, and surrounded by broad ditches. This city was formerly a hanse town, and its trade is very considerable, and near the palace is The Collegium Fredericianum. Besides the several hospitals and alms-houses, there is a charitable fund, which distributes weekly pensions to above eight hundred persons.

The town of Pillaw is well fortified, and has an excellent harbour, situated at the mouth of the bay or lake called the Frefche-Hoff, thirty miles to the west of Königsberg. The larger vessels, consigned to Königsberg, deliver and take in their cargoes here, as the Frefche-Hoff hath not a sufficient depth of water to carry them up to Königsberg: hence Pillaw is a place of considerable trade, and the town and harbour are defended by a strong fort well planted with cannon. The peninsula in which Pillaw is situated, is, from its fertility and pleasantness, termed the Prussian Paradise.

The small village of Wogram is in the neighbourhood of Pillaw, where sturgeons are boiled and packed up, and caviar is made of their rows.

Here is a narrow slip of land called the Curische Nerung, or Peninsula Caronenfis, which separates the Baltic sea from the bay called Curische-Hoff; it is a barren, narrow, and sandy tract.

The town of Walau, situated at the conflux of the Pregel and Alle, consists of two principal and five cross streets, but does not contain above three hundred houses: it was founded in the year 1336.

Near this place are Great and Little Frederic's canals, which much facilitate the inland navigation of the kingdom: the king of Prussia purchased the property of these canals, and their respective tolls, of the Waldenburg family, in the year 1713.

The circle or province of Nantangan adjoins to Samland: it is fertile and populous; and contains, 1. Angerburg, which is defended by a strong castle; it is celebrated for a capacious, beautiful, and well endowed church. 2. Rastinburg, a handsome town, with a castle on the river Guleer. 3. Gardawen, on the river Omer, founded in 1325; it has two castles to defend it, and an elegant palace with fine gardens.

Oberland was formerly a very considerable province; is at present equally fertile, but less populous than it has been. It contains, 1. Osterode, a considerable town on the lake of Dribentz, remarkable only for its salt works. 2. Holland is a well-fortified, handsome town, near the river Weiske: here are some excellent salt-works, a magazine for corn, forage, &c. 3. Morungen, a small well-built town, situated upon a lake to which it gives name, is exceedingly well-fortified. Marienwarder is a considerable town, neatly built, and pleasantly situated near the Vistula, and on the borders of Pomerania.

Little Lithuania is one hundred and forty-four miles in length, and in general above fifty in breadth. This province is very woody, and was almost depopulated by the pestilence in 1710; but King Frederic William restored it, by encouraging a great number of foreigners to settle in it; since this time it has been extremely well cultivated, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. It contains the following places: 1. Memel, a well-fortified town on the lake Curische-Hoff, about eighty miles from Königsberg. It has a considerable trade in flax, lintseed, thread, and hemp. Here are also a brewery, a soap manufactory, a salt factory, royal magazine, and a strong citadel to defend the whole. 2. Tittset, defended by a castle, is famed for its cattle, and the excellent butter made in its neighbourhood: it also contains a salt-factory. 3. Insterburg, at the conflux of the Inster, with the Angerap, is defended by a castle, contains a granary, salt-factory, and high court, and has a considerable trade for beer and corn; it is inhabited by about three thousand families. 4. Stallupe-heren, a small town of great trade in cattle; it had a charter granted to it in 1722: wood is scarce, and fresh water still more so. 5. Ragint, a small town: it is surrounded by pallisadoes, and has a strong castle to defend it.

II. Brandenburg. This electorate has Poland on the east; Luneburg on the west; Pomerania on the north; and Silesia, with the electorate of Saxony on the south. It is two hundred miles in length, and its greatest breadth is about one hundred.

The climate is exceedingly cold in winter, and the soil in general not fruitful, as it is in a great measure sandy, though under the reigns of the late and present sovereigns a variety

a variety of methods have been taken to improve it. The productions which are most plentiful, are buck wheat, millet, flax, woad, tobacco, herbs, alum, salt-petre, amber, iron, stone, &c. Abundance of cattle and sheep are bred here: and the woods not only supply the inhabitants with fuel, but with timber, charcoal, tar and wood-ashes, not only for domestic uses, but for exportation. They have likewise a very considerable silk-manufactory here.

About ten years ago Brandenburg contained one hundred and twenty towns, two thousand five hundred villages, and eight hundred thousand inhabitants. But his present majesty has greatly increased not only the manufactures, but the number of people, villages, and even towns in his dominions, and more particularly those in this electorate.

The chief rivers in Brandenburg are, the Elbe, Preignitz, Warta, Oder, Havel, and Spree. The rivers and lakes abound with fish, and are united by canals.

Brandenburg is generally divided into three parts, called Marcks, viz. 1. The Middle Marck, which lies west of the river Oder, extending to the Havel and Elbe. 2. The New Marck, which lies to the north east on the banks of the Oder and Wart, stretching northward to Pomerania. 3. the Alt, or Old Marck, on the west side of the Elbe, between that river and Lunenburg. To these some add the Upper Marck, or Ukermarck, near the river Uker, and the Preignitz, which has the duchy of Mecklenburg on the north-west and north-east; its northern situation makes it very cold, and the winter sharp for seven or eight months; but they have plenty of firing. It is not very fruitful, by reason of its cold and watery soil; but it has large forests abounding with deer. The Old Marck, however, is said to have plenty of herbs and fruit, and the New Marck has some corn and pasture, wherein are fed great flocks of sheep, and some black cattle. They boast, indeed, in some parts, of their wine, but the Saxons despise it to a proverb. The country people are generally poor, and have sorry houses of accommodation. La Forest says, that if they were as much given to trade, as to drinking and feasting, they might make considerable profit of their sheep, and breed more black cattle; yet they are universally allowed to be brave. Their commodities are chiefly exported by the Elbe and the Oder, betwixt which there is a communication by a canal, which saves their paying toll in the Sound. The country is also watered by other good rivers, particularly the Spree, the Havel, the Netze, the Uker, and the Warta; and it has many lakes (the chief of which is the Ukerzee) the best stocked with fish of any in Germany.

I. The New Marck, lying next to Silesia, we chuse to describe first. It has Silesia on the south, the Middle Marck on the west and south-west, Poland on the east, and runs out to Pomerania on the north. The Oder divides it from the Middle Marck, and the Uker Marck. It is about one hundred miles in compass. It belonged many years to the knights of the Teutonic order, till the 13th century, when it was purchased by the Brandenburg family; but they had not peaceable possession of it till the 16th. Buno, in his notes on Cluverius, says, that most of this marquisate was sold to the emperor Charles IV. by Otho of Bavaria, for twenty hundred thousand pieces of gold, which Otho afterwards spent in the castle of Wolfstein, upon a baker's wife, whom he had debauched. This division abounds more than any of the others in corn and pasture, and has vineyards on the banks of the Oder, but they are of no great account. Sometimes the boors find quantities of old coin, and precious stones, which they sell for little.

The chief places in it, are, 1. Custrin, or Kustrin, its capital, thirteen miles north of Frankfort, and forty-five east of Berlin. It was but a fishing village till 1537, when it was walled with stone, and otherwise fortified, and is reckoned the key of the New Marck. Gustavus Adolphus besieged it in vain in 1631. It is strong both by art and nature, being situate in a marsh, at the conflux of the Oder and Warta. It has an arsenal well furnished, and a citadel which is reckoned impregnable. The burghers have neat houses, well furnished, and the market-place is the best in all the marquisate. It has two churches, in one of which, near the palace, are interred its princes. Besides the town council, there is a council of the regency here for this division, and a court of bailiwick.

2. Falkenburg, on the river Frage, or Rega, thirty-eight miles south of Colberg, fifty east of Stetin, and one hundred and seven miles north-east of Berlin, on the frontiers of Pomerania, is only noted for its strong castle.

3. Drieffen, or Dreyfen, in Latin Driefa, another town with a fortress, reckoned impregnable, near the Polish frontier, at the conflux of the Netze and the Frage, eighty miles north-east of Berlin. On the Polish side it is defended by a large marsh, which reaches almost a musquet-shot from the town; and its two rivers part at the entrance of the place, and enclose it. The fortification is a regular pentagon, with ditches. The Swedes took it by the treachery of one of the inhabitants in 1639, but restored it by the peace in 1659.

4. Landsperg, on the river Warta, over which it has a bridge twenty miles east of the Oder, twenty-four east of Kustrin, thirty-five north east of Frankfort, and sixty-eight east of Berlin. It is very conveniently situate for trade, which consists much in casting of iron ordnance. It was twice taken by the Swedes in the German wars, and as often retaken.

5. Sonneberg, or Sonneberg, on the same river, fifty miles east of Berlin, was the residence of the bailiffs of the order of Malta, till the electors seized it in the 16th century, and assumed the power to present their bailiffs, and dispose their commanderies.

6. Schwedt, upon the Oder, forty-seven miles north-east of Berlin, is the appenage of one of the sons of the family, who has a pleasant garden and palace here; and from hence Philip, great uncle to the late king of Prussia, was denominated prince of Brandenburg Schwedt. The town is noted for a treaty of neutrality for Swedish Pomerania, to prevent its being ruined by the late war in the north: but Charles XII. of Sweden refusing to stand to it, lost that country.

II. The Middle Marck lies in the middle of the marquisate, and in the largest of the three divisions, containing about one hundred miles from the banks of the Elbe to the Oder. It has Preignitz on the north, together with Mecklenburg, the Uker Marck, and the New Marck; which last division bounds it likewise on the east, together with Silesia; on the south it has Lusatia, and the duchy of Saxony; and the duchy of Magdebourg, on the west.

The chief towns are, 1. Lebus, or Libus, on the Oder, six miles north of Frankfort, twelve south of Custrin, and forty east of Berlin. It was formerly a bishopric, founded by Mieslaus, the first Christian prince of Poland, about the year 695. It embraced the reformation in 1555, and in 1628, it was united to the dominions of Brandenburg, by the elector, who was its bishop, and, as such, chancellor of the university of Frankfort. The see, which has since been secularized, was suffragan to the archbishop of Gnesna, in Poland. The town stands between two hills, on one of which are the ruins of the old castle of the bishop, which was burnt.

2. Frankfort on the Oder, about ten miles north from the borders of Lusatia, sixteen west from those of Poland and Stetin, one hundred and thirty north of Prague, and two hundred and fifty-three north-west of Vienna. The Oder, over which there is a large timber bridge, divides it into two parts. It is said to have been founded in the year 146, by Sunno, a prince of the Franks, who drove out the Vandals, and planted a colony here of his own people. In 1253, it was rebuilt, and enlarged one third by the elector John I. In 1379, the elector Sigismund gave it great privileges, upon its entering into the league of the Hanse towns; and Joachim I. founded an university here in 1506, supplying it with learned professors from Leipzick; since which time it has bred many learned men. The Protestant religion was established here in 1538. It was once a free and imperial city; but now exempt, and not so considerable as formerly. Nevertheless it has a considerable trade, chiefly in linen cloth and fells, by the Oder, and the canal betwixt that river and the Elbe; and has three great fairs a year. The streets are wide, the houses well built, and the market place is spacious and stately.

This city has stood the shock of various revolutions. It was put under the ban of the empire by the emperor Charles IV. and, to pacify him, the inhabitants forced to pay him down twelve thousand marks of silver. In 1631, the Swedes took it by storm, when they put all the inhabitants to the sword, to revenge the massacre of two thousand Swedes, whom the emperor's general, count Tilly, had inhumanely put to death in the city of Brandenburg. However, it was restored to the elector by the peace of Westphalia. Without the gates there are the ruins of an ancient Carthusian monastery, of which Johannes ab Indagine, said to have wrote three hundred tracts on various subjects, was prior. From hence to Berlin, which is a flat sandy country, the road leads through.

3. Munchenburg, situated between Frankfort on the Oder and Berlin. This is a small town, inhabited chiefly by the descendants of those French Protestants who left their country when the edict of Nantz was repealed.

The little pleasant city of Furstenwald stands on the north side of the Spree, is the seat of a bailiwick, and contains an electoral palace.

Berlin, the capital of all the king of Prussia's dominions, and one of the largest, finest, and most populous cities in all Germany, consists properly of five towns united under one town-council. In it are several fine palaces, with other magnificent and superb buildings. The streets are, for the most part, broad, regular, straight, and some of them very long and elegant. There are also several large and beautiful squares, together with pleasant walks. There are twenty-five churches, fourteen of which are Lutheran, eleven Calvinist, and one Roman catholic; an academy of sciences, another of arts and painting, a college of anatomy and surgery, five seminaries and two public libraries.

In 1575 it was computed to contain five thousand eight hundred and twenty-six houses, and a hundred and twenty-six thousand, six hundred and sixty-one persons, among which were six thousand five hundred and forty-one French, one thousand two hundred and fifty-three Bohemians, two thousand five hundred and ninety-five Jews, and twenty-six thousand three hundred and twenty-five soldiers who had families. This city is seated on the Spree, which passes through it in two principal branches, and is in the fifty-second degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and the thirteenth degree forty-four minutes east longitude, an hundred and fifty miles to the north-west of Prague, and is encompassed with agreeable gardens and vineyards.

The entrance into Berlin is airy and elegant. In going towards the palace, on the new bridge, which is of stone, over the Spree, is an equestrian statue of Frederick-William the Great, which is esteemed a piece of exquisite workmanship, and was erected by Frederick I. king of Prussia. Both the man and horse are of one entire piece, cast at the same time, and cost forty-thousand crowns. The elector is represented in a Roman habit, somewhat above the common size, on a pedestal of white marble, adorned with basso relievo, representing four slaves bound in chains to the corners of the base that supports the statue.

The royal palace is a magnificent structure of free-stone, begun by Frederick I. in 1699, and consists of four stories, with fine ceilings, large apartments, and superb furniture; in particular the quantity of silver every where seen is amazing, for the tables, stands, lustres, chandeliers, looking-glass frames, couches, &c. are said to be all of that metal. Mr. Hanway observes, that the apartments in the palace are adorned with silver in every shape; but these ornaments are so massy, that the fashion does not exceed seven per cent. so that four millions of dollars might with great ease be realized, if the exigencies of the state required it. Here are the pictures of Charles V. and his empress, the frames of which are of silver, each weighing six centners, or six hundred and fifty pounds; and, there is a superb crown lustre of seventeen centners. There are also pieces of three, four, and five centners, and a grand music-gallery, finely ornamented, all of silver; besides one end of a large apartment, for about twenty feet high, and as many broad, is richly furnished with gilt plate: yet all this is merely for shew, the court having other services of plate for use. The king's particular apartments are elegant; but have nothing extraordinary; the prevailing taste is white stucco and gilding. Several of the private apartments have tables with pens, ink, and loose papers, which indicate the dispatch of business, more than the regularity and elegance one naturally expects to find in a royal palace.

The hall has several good paintings, and the grand saloon is adorned with four pieces of tapestry, representing our Saviour driving out the money-changers, his washing the disciples feet, the miraculous draught of fishes, and his last supper. The throne in the audience-chamber is of velvet, embroidered with gold in a grand taste; but not loaded with ornaments. There is nothing extraordinary in the old quarter of the palace, except a bed of crimson velvet, which has above two hundred cyphers with electoral crowns, all set with pearls, and the chairs in this room are in the same taste. It is usual for persons of the royal blood to lie in this bed on their wedding night. The library is far from having a beautiful appearance; but all gentlemen have the liberty of reading there, from ten in the morning till two in the afternoon.

Here is a spacious building for the king's stables, which

are divided into two courts and nine pavillions, at an equal distance from each other. The architecture on the outside is gothic; but the inside is more magnificent, and very lofty and lightsome. The mangers are of stone, and the pillars of the stands of iron, adorned with his majesty's cypher gilt. Over the mangers are several large pictures of the finest horses bred in the king's studs. The backside of these stables projects towards the river, a slope being formed instead of a stair-case, by which they descend. Here are noble apartments for the master of the horse and the inferior officers, with large rooms over the stables, in which are deposited a great deal of rich furniture and harness; among which are the accoutrements of the horse on which Frederick I. rode at his public entry; all the ornaments of the bridles, the breast-leather, and crupper, as well as the bits and stirrups, being of gold, adorned with brilliants. These stables are said to have room for four hundred horses.

One of the noblest structures of the kind in Europe is the arsenal, which consists of four grand buildings, that form a spacious square, with four fronts almost exactly alike, and a handsome portico at the entrance of each. The lower story is of rustic architecture, with arched windows, and that above it is of the Corinthian order. Over the principal gate, which is in the middle, is the model of the late king's grandfather in brass gilt, inclosed in an oval frame; the four cardinal virtues, of a gigantic size, are placed on pedestals on each side of the portico, and seem to look towards the picture: over it is his majesty's cypher supported by two men, and above it a large pediment covered with a beautiful basso relievo representing Mars, resting on a trophy, and looking at a couple of slaves chained at his feet. This edifice is crowned with a balustrade, and several noble trophies and statues contribute to embellish it. The inside is not less magnificent, the rooms of the upper story being full of arms ranged in great order; the lower rooms are stored with brass guns, and the walls and pillars that support the roof covered with cuirasses, helmets, &c.

The house of the general of the ordnance is behind the arsenal: within it is contained the foundery, where a number of men are continually employed. There are several other arsenals in this city, where are kept field pieces, iron cannon, &c.

In this city is also an opera-house, elegantly built, the front of which is adorned with a noble portico, supported by six Corinthian columns, and in the architrave is written, "Fredericus rex Apollini et Musæ;" above which is a pediment adorned with basso relievo and statues. The scenes are splendid, and in an elegant taste. It has three galleries, and is said to contain two thousand persons. The columns that support the roof are calculated to throw the whole into a grand saloon, and the orchestra consists of about fifty musicians. The opera is entirely supported at the king's expence, and rendered in some degree subservient to the ends of government. The extreme delight the late king took in music, and his great knowledge in that science, carried this entertainment to a very high degree of perfection. In the upper galleries on each side of the stage were seated six trumpeters, who saluted the queen consort when she entered the house or retired; but the king himself would not allow this salutation to his own person, as he paid little regard to ceremony.

The houses in the suburbs are generally of timber; but so well plastered, that they seem to be of stone, and the streets are broad, straight, and lightsome. Here was the residence of the queen mother, who was sister to king George I. of England. This palace is named *Mon Bijou*, or *My Jewel*; it is a small, elegant structure, beautifully furnished, and has very fine gardens that have the river beyond them.

The palace of Charlottenburg is about five miles from the city of Berlin: it was founded by the late king's grandfather, and his majesty finished it according to his own taste, which was extremely elegant. There is a range of about ten apartments, well disposed, adorned with white stucco and gilding. The ball-room is worthy of the king, who is said to have designed it: it has ten windows on each side, and besides the stucco and gilding, which are here richer than in the other rooms, it is adorned with busts, statues, and large pier glasses. The statues are well disposed, and the gardens elegantly laid out.

The town of Oranienburg, so called by its founder Frederick I. in honour of his mother, who was born princess of Orange, it delightfully situated near the Spree, about sixteen miles north-west of Berlin. The apartments of this palace are grand. The miles from hence to